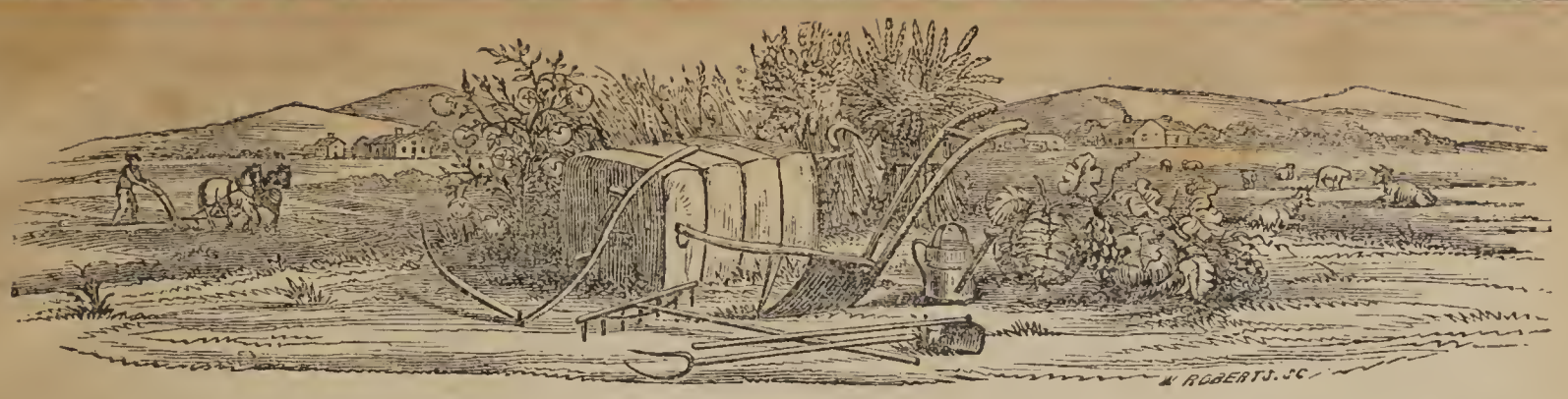


# FARMER AND PLANTER.

VOL. I. PENDLETON, S. C., SEPTEMBER, 1850. No. 7.

**The Farmer and Planter**

*Is published monthly at Pendleton, S. C.,*
BY GEO. SEABORN & J. J. GILMAN,
**Editors and Proprietors.**

TERMS.

1 *copy*, one year (*invariably in advance*) $1
6 *copies* one year, (directed to one office,) 5
25 *copies*, " " " " " 20
100 *copies*, " " " " " 75

All letters, except communications for the Farmer and Planter, must be POST PAID to insure attention.

☞ *Advertising and Job work done on reasonable terms.*

From the Newberry Sentinel.

## REPORTS

**Read before the Newberry Agricultural Society, at its late Anniversary Meeting, on the 17th July.**

### ON RECLAIMING WORN OUT LANDS.

THIS is a subject important to all; and I only regret that it was not confided to those better skilled and abler to do it justice, as my farming operations are secondary considerations in my general business, I cannot spare the time to give the subject that thought and attention which its importance demands. But feeling the importance of every one acting his part in this important subject, I will, nevertheless, give some of my experience.—There are many, and various modes and means, of improving old lands—I have an old piece of land, some eighty acres, that was much exhausted from bad usage and neglect, which I have treated in the following manner, for the last six or seven years: I sow alternately in wheat and oats, and plant in corn. I commenced by sowing in wheat and oats; after they are cut and hauled out, I put my hogs in and let them remain till they pick the scattering and remaining grain; they are then taken off and the fences put up, and no other stock permitted to go on the land. By pasturing with hogs only, the grain of the wheat and oats only is eaten, and the stubble, grass, weeds, &c., left to decompose and enrich the land, which would not be the case were horses, cows, and sheep permitted to go on them; besides, they are not injured by being trod and packed close. About the 1st to the 10th of September, I commence turning under the stubble, weeds, grass, &c. with Pronty and Mears' patent plow which cuts a furrow some ten inches wide and six or seven deep, and completely turns under all vegetable substances on the ground, all of which is nicely and thoroughly decomposed by the ensuing spring, and imparts much life and vigor to the crop, whether corn, cotton, or anything else.—About the first of March I plow again very close and deep with a narrow plow, and when ready to plant my corn, check (to drill would be preferable) four feet, plant my corn and immediately throw out the middles to prevent washing, &c. At my second plowing I plant my peas, (early in May,) and the last plowing I sow them broad-cast, in order to shade and enrich the lands. As soon as the corn is gathered, and as many peas as I desire, my hogs are put in to eat off the scattering corn and a portion of the peas. As soon as this is done, they are taken out and nothing more permitted to go on the lands. Early in October I break up thoroughly, turning under the pea vines, corn stalks, grass, &c., and at the proper season sow wheat and oats again.

These lands were originally good, with a good subsoil, and under this treatment I have already improved it fifty per cent. They have had little or no manure from the stable yard or otherwise, except as stated. If the pea be what I believe it to be, the clover of the South, if it possesses anything like the fertilizing powers ascribed to it by many, then we have a cheap and convenient fertilizer within the reach of all; and if you are determined to improve your lands, go boldly to work, and whatever you do, be sure and do it well. Do not adopt the mistaken doctrine of making a good deal a little better, but make a little a great deal better. Hill side lands ditch, so as to keep on it what you put on it. Fill all gullies and washes with brush that are neglected or burnt. During the intervals of cultivating and gathering your crops, put every one to making manure, at least every one that can be profitably employed with wagons and teams on the farm. Make it a business to attend to it yourself, and I doubt not but our lands would improve, and the crops would not lessen, but increase.—Collect and save *properly* every thing.—Attend to the hog-yard, cow-pen, stable-yard, fence corners, the extra accumulation of leaves and vegetable mould in the hollows and at the foot of hill sides, all rubbish in the forest, may be dug up with profit. All waste vegetable substances wherever found, should be dug up and brought to the yard. By adopting and adhering strictly to these rules, we can scarcely conceive the quantity of manure that can be made annually; and with plenty manure and proper management, our exhausted lands may soon be reclaimed. Much of our soil, under a long course of wearing tillage, has been deprived of its vegetable matter; and in supplying this material we also "supply valuable inorganic elements which are contained therein." We are led by observation to conclude that the presence of vegetable mould is a grand essential to fertility.—We find that nature, every where, in making her choicest soils, endows them liberally in this respect. "Its presence makes the soil more permeable—it keeps land from packing down two hard, and helps the roots of plants to penetrate and range about at pleasure—to find that genial air and health-giving water and pasture which cause the crops to mature into bountiful harvest;" hence the importance of saving vegetable substances. Where there is a good sub-soil, plow close and deep, and when the lands are in proper order, assisting your old lands annually with a dressing of manure, pea crop, &c., &c. My conviction is sure, that with perseverance combined with a moderate degree of science, that almost any farm, originally strong, can be reclaimed.—There are frequent and many instances of the kind among our frugal and industrious northern neighbors. It is only necessary to see the once bleak and barren hills of Maine, Massachusetts, &c., and now see their luxurient crops to convince us. North and South Carolina and Georgia unquestionably, at one time, constituted the garden spot of the American Union. But what is it now? Look around and behold the evidences of the sloth and degeneracy of our countrymen. The ruthless hand of the destroyer has been here,

there, every where. The magnificent forest, once the pride, the glory and ornament of our country, have fallen before the unsparing axe of the woodman, and instead of bright fields and waving corn greeting the eye of the passer by, the heart sickens with loathing disgust, at beholding those once proud old hills, now rearing their bare and blasted forms around us, as if "Omnipotence had cursed the land with the curse of Idumea: Edon shall be a desolate wilderness."—Gloomy as is this picture, it contains more truth than fiction. Yet we should not despair. Light is breaking in upon our people. They are beginning to learn, though late, that all the fabled abundance of the West will not compensate for the discomforts of a new home, and the severence of old and long cherished ties.—"The fickle goddess, too, has frowned upon many of her friends who wooed her embraces in that El Dorado of the imagination, the boundless valley of the great Mississippi; and they are fearful of trusting to her smile, lest she jilt them too." This feeling of distrust will, ere long, beget contentment with home, and with this will come a disposition to improve, not only our farms, but our dwellings and grounds, our orchards our gardens, and everything calculated to please the eye, gratify the taste, or minister to the happiness of man. Let this disposition be stimulated and directed aright by a wise and intelligent public opinion, and many now living will see the day when a change shall have come over this saddened prospect—when our bleak hills shall be clothed with verdure to their very summits—when every plain and valley will "blossom as the rose"—when the husbandman shall "rejoice in the fulness of his joy, and be glad." Then shall we realize, to its fullest extent, the beneficial effects of the time and labor spent in reclaiming our worn-out lands.

R. Stewart, Chm'n.

---

ON HORTICULTURE.

Being deeply impressed with the magnitude of the subject under consideration, and sensibly feeling my great inability to do anything like justice to a matter which I consider of such great importance, and neglecting to devote the time and attention to it, that I had heretofore anticipated, it is with agreat deal of reluctance that I say anything on the subject.—Therefore, I beg leave to report briefly, some little of my own experience.

1st. It is all important to make your garden rich, and dig or plow it deep with a common plow, and follow with a subsoil plow if you have it; and if your garden has a clay bottom, (and if it has not it is not fit for a garden,) spade it to the depth of ten or twelve inches; this should be done in the last of December or first of January.

2d. If you wish to have early cabbage, sow your seed in September, and if the winter is not extremely cold, they will stand it pretty well. You may set out plants as early in spring as you think proper, though the ground should be well prepared before hand, by manuring, plowing (or digging,) and raking, for the reception of the plants. If you do not sow your seed in September, do not neglect to sow them the first of January, especially Early York Cabbage, for they cannot bear the heat of summer; they will rot when the weather becomes too warm.—Cabbage seed may be sown in June, or the first of July, for fall or winter use. Cabbage plants may be set out in rows three feet apart, and should be plowed two or three times during their culture, as well as hoed. The mode I adopt in plowing it is, to take a small plow stock and narrow scoop, (or bull tongue,) and hitch in a strong hand by fastening a rope or line to the plow; and in this way I can plow it twice as deep as a common hand will hoe it. You may apply the plow to all vegetables in the garden.

3d. Onion seed may be sown in September or October, in rows about 18 inches apart. The seed should be drilled with the thumb and fingers, as thin as possible, so as to obtain a stand; the trench they are sown in should be well manured with manure from the fowl house. When they are three or four inches high in the spring, they should be cut through with a small hoe or something of the kind, similar to chopping out cotton to stand in little bunches three or four inches apart, and as they grow up thin by degrees down to one stalk; they should be kept clean all the while with the hoe until the last thinning, when all the dirt should be taken away from the bulb, and no more be returned to it; keep them free from grass and weeds. I prefer onions raised in this way, to those raised from the button; the button onion is too liable to multiply or button on the top, and thereby spoil the root in a great measure.

4th. Bunch or bush beans may be planted in hills, about two feet apart, from the first of March to the first of July; plant five or six in a hill, to insure a stand, but when of a proper size, thin out two or three stalks.—They should be planted deep and well worked, both with the hoe and plow, and kept clean from grass and weeds.

5th. Beets should be planted in rows or drills, about eighteen inches apart, any time from the first of October to the first of March; if the winter should be severe, they should be covered by laying polls along the rows, and across the polls, some brush, and then cover with wheat or pine straw, which should be removed early in the spring. Before sowing your beet seed, the ground should be spaded to the depth of 12 or 15 inches, and be made very rich; all seeds before mentioned, should be covered very lightly.

5th. Asparagus, a most delicious vegetable, should be sown in January, or the roots transplanted which is preferable to sowing seed. To prepare your bed for asparagus, it should be spaded up, and the dirt thrown out to the depth of 10 or 12 inches, about 5 feet wide, and as long as you please; then lay the bottom of your bed all over with flat rock or brick; then return the earth well mixed with manure, so as to make it perfectly rich; rake over your bed then lay off in rows 12 inches apart, and plant your roots or sow your seed. Keep your bed free from weeds or grass.

Matthew Hall, Chm'n.

---

ON POTATOES.

The Committee of the Newberry Agricultural Society, appointed to report on Potatoes, beg leave to submit the following:

The grey sandy or gravelly soils are supposed to be best adapted to the growth of the potato. It seems to be the more general opinion that hills are preferable to ridges. We think, however, that it is a matter of small importance which of the two modes are adopted. The ridges have the advantage of being the most easily cultivated. We would prefer planting sweet potatoes about the middle of March, and to those who plant in the moon, we would say plant a day or two before the March moon commences waining, no matter what time of the month.—A moment's reflection will teach us the necessity of having the soil well pulverized as a first step towards a good crop of roots. To those who prefer planting in hills, we would just say, when your ground is broken up and well pulverized, and the time having arrived when you wish to plant, just check your patch with a broad old fashioned shovel, throwing the dirt as much to one side as the other; then the hills are easily drawn up. A chop in the top of the hill with a hoe will make a place in which to drop the slips. We think two pieces three inches long are enough to each hill; for, like every thing else, they must not be crowded, if you wish them to grow large. When the hills begin to get grassy or weedy, scrape down, and if the hills are made of a good size at first, they will bear scraping a second time. This, with plowing each way, and drawing up usually lays by the potato patch. Should any prefer planting in ridges, we would say lay off your rows about three feet eight or ten inches apart; then with a good twister, throw up the beds as high as you well can.—This done, with the foot of the plow-stock open a slight furrow on the centre of the bed, in which drop the potato seed about sixteen inches apart, one in a place. The hoes now follow, drawing up the bed from each side, forming it into a ridge, by doing which the slip will be covered to a sufficient depth. Cultivation is much the same as in hills, but more easily performed.

We are aware that different modes are practiced for saving the potato, but we know of no better plan than to put them up in banks (private banks,) from thirty to forty bushels together. By scraping the surface of the earth, and placing the potatoes thereon, there is no necessity for making a bed of straw or any thing else, as the potatoes will keep as well on the naked earth as on a bed of straw.—Cover over with pine or wheat straw; place corn stalks pretty thick around the bank; then cover to the thickness of about four inches with earth, closing up the bank entirely as there is no necessity

for leaving air holes, unless there should happen to be a spell of warm weather, when it might be necessary to give a little air; but when this is over we would prefer excluding the air. When it is wished to open a bank for use, some of us have practieed the plan of winding up the bank at once, and plaeing its eontents in some convenient place, where they ean be kept under loek and key. Should it be very freezing, a few eotton seed thrown over them will keep them safe.

Respeetfully submitted,

JAMES MAFFET, Chm'n.

ON THE PEA CROP.

The committee to whom was referred a report on the value of the Pea erop, for food, and for manure, have approached the subject with a full sense of its great importanee to the whole system of Southern agrieulture. It embraces within its influence results of the highest and most desirable character, in the reproduction of soils, in rearing and sustaining all the domestic animals connected with the plantation, and furnishes a cheap, healthy, and nutritious artiele for human consumption. Leguminous plants eonstitute an extensive family in the animal kingdom, embracing many genera and speeies, extending from the rattle box, ineluding clover, lueern and sanfoin, to the loeust of the forest.

In Northern latitudes, elover has long held its proper plaee, as an agent in the restoration of soil, and as a food for domestic animals; and like the pea, its high eharacter not only depends on its nutritive properties, its porous and easily deeomposed leaf and stem, but as your Committee will hereafter show, on a deposit of certain substances to the soil, not neeessary to the perfect maturity of its seeds, but of the highest importance to the whole eeral erop, and particularly to wheat. The pea has long been eultivated in this District, and now forms no ineonsiderable item in the provision crop; and yet, from the wasteful way in which the crop is consumed, its real value as food eannot be properly appreeiated.

To illustrate the value of the pea as food, the Committee will give its value, compared with other artieles of food, as analysed by different chemists. Einhoff gives the nutritive matter of peas compared with grain as follows, per bushel: wheat, 74.47; ryo, 70.39; barley, 65.33; oats, 58.23; beans, 68.45; peas 75.49. The same chemist, from 3840 parts of beans, obtained starch 1805 parts; albumen 851; mueilage, &e. 799 parts. It is believed that the nutriment property of the bean differs but little from that of the pea.

Dr. Playfair, whose analyses we will submit, states that the nutrient prineiples of plants are gluten and albumen, and that they ehemically differ in nothing from the white of an egg, the muscle of an ox, or the blood of sheep. He divides food into two kinds, azotised and unazotised; that is, with or without nitrogen; the azotised is the principle forming muscular and other tissues, and the unazotised such as starch, mucilage, sugar, oil, &c., the fat forming principle.

From 100 lbs, of peas he obtained water 16, organic matter 80½, ashes 3½; from 100 lbs. of beans he obtained water 14, organie matter 82½, ashes 3½: from 100 lbs. of oats he obtained water 18, organic matter 19, ashes 3. The same chemist shows the equivalent value of several artieles of food by analysis:

From 100 pounds of flesh he obtained gluten 29; from 100 lbs. of blood he obtained gluten 29; from 100 lbs. of peas he obtained gluten 29, unazotized matter 51½; from 100 lbs beans he obtained gluten 29, unazotised matter 52; from 100 lbs. oats he obtained gluten 10½, unazotised matter 68. The analysis of Indian corn by Dr. Dance. gave to the 100 lbs. stareh, sugar, and oil, 88.33; 100 lbs. gluten and albumen, 1.26; 100 water, 9.00; 100 lbs. salts, 1.31.

From the above analysis, it is most apparent that the pea is not surpassed in value, for food, by any known article, when the flesh and fat forming principles are taken together.

The usual way of feeding the pea, in an uncrushed state, lessens its value as food, and is sometimes dangerous from the high fermentation which takes plaee before and during assimulation; the large quantity of earbonic acid gas disengaged, frequently produces colic, and inflamation of the intestines, which would never oeeur if the pea was crushed into meal, and fed with cut straw.

Nature uses the surface of the earth as a great laboratory, in which there is a constant chemical aetion going on in the restoration of the soil, and in the production of certain substanees necessary for the support of organic life, vegetable and animal. The earth is inorganic, possesses no positive life, no period of growth, perfection or decline; is governed by no law, except that of affinity, and is hence completely under the intellectual and physical control of man, in the application of those substances necessary to its greatest fertility. Vegetable matter is more or less valuable as a manure, in proportion to its susceptibility to decomposition, and the gases and other constituents they impart to the soil.

Ligneous fibre is insoluble in water, and in almost any other menstruum, under ordinary eireumstances; the acids are decomposed on it, and a ehange of color is the only result. When perfectly dried, it resists fermentation altogether, and air and water deeompose it exceedingly slow; although the gramineous and cereal elasses are destitute of the ligneous fibre, so large a quantity of silex enters into the eomposition of their epidermis to give strength to the plants, and protect them from the ravages of parasites and insects, that they are as impervious to the agents of decomposition, as the firmer ligneous fibre; and the small quantity of medullary matter they contain, renders the whole an inconsiderable means of reproduction, when taken alone, and unmixed with other manures. Vegetable earth, or mould, depends on vegetable organization. It is then the business of the agriculturist to seleet such plants, in eonnection with the profits of the plantation, as oppose the least resistanee to the laws of putrefactive fermentation, and affords the greatest amount of nutrient constituents to the soil, of which the pea stands pre-eminent, and seems intended by nature to be the prineipal restorer of lands in this climate.

Aeeording to the experiments of Beeeari, gluten so absolutely necessary to the perfeet maturity of the whole cereal erop, does not form a eonstituent of the seeds of leguminous plants; may not that vegito-animal substanee be thrown off by the exeretory aetion of the roots, or remain unappropriated with the stem and leaves, to be returned to the soil by decomposition, and the well known fitness of soil for wheat after peas or elover, depend on that fact?

Flour of good appearanee sometimes will not rise, and the effect is generally attributed to the mill, or an unskillful miller; when in truth, the land on which the wheat is grown is at fault, affording none of the material of which gluten is formed, or the grain has been injured by slight fermentation, the effeet of unskilful stacking, or other causes. The pea crop in such lands never fails to restore the exhausted constituents of the soil and insures a well matured grain crop.

Plants of the same speeies, or kind, should never follow each other. The wide-spread ruin, common to every plantation in the District, may be attributed to the planting cotton after cotton, till the over-taxed soil refuses longer to produce. Your Committee are of opinion, that a judicious rotation of crops, aided by ditching, subsoil plowing and manuring, would speedily change the face of the District—that worn out spots and gullies would disappear, and every acre of land return an ample reward to the laborer.

There can be no doubt but that the pea should be made the basis of that rotation. The pea is of rapid growth, comes quickly to perfeetion, and under ordinary eireumstances, an abundant bearer; and is partieularly rich in those eonstituents on which the formation of flesh and fat depends. It is one of those plants possessing fleshy leaves, a soft and porous stem, and makes large demands on the atmosphere for food; it not only leaves the soil unexhausted for a grain crop, but adds to its fertility; it proteets the surface of the ground from the hardening effects of the summer sun, and leaves the land more permeable to every fertilizing agent which may be brought in contact with it.

P. MOON, Chm'n.

ON MELONS, PUMPKINS, ETC.

Upon the subject of Melons, Pumpkins, &c., two of your Committee report—

That in cultivating the water-melon, they prefer using a separate lot of land, thoroughly broken up and pulverized; then laid off in rows from six to twelve feet apart each way, dig a hole at every cross for the hills, from 12 to 20 inches deep, and from 12 to 15 inches in diameter, fill them half full of rotten cobs and pressed down with a mall, then with a mixture of one-fourth cotton seed and three-fourths good surface earth, complete the filling; plant the seed thereon, fifteen

or twenty to the hill, from the 20th March to the 15th of April, according to the season; plow often till the vines get three or four feet long, thin to two plants in a hill about the time they commence to run, and keep the weeds well out with the hoe and hand after the plowing ceases.—Musk-melons do well cultivated in the same way, and both can be grown successfully on new or strong old land, either among corn, cotton or potatoes; and when grown on land sufficiently strong to produce them without manure, the vines continue through a much later period of the season; but whether that be a merit, depends on the opinion of the grower, as to the propriety of indulging in their use late in the season.

They regard new-ground and bottom land as the only places where pumpkins can be profitably grown, unless the land be highly manured. Their yield is best, they think, when not planted before the middle of May or first of June. They are susceptible of being prepared in many ways for the table, when they become an excellent article of human food. For stock they are found to be valuable by many, as they are thought to have a healthy action on the kidneys, especially among horses. They can be kept through winter, by placing them in a dry cellar, or putting them up among dry corn husks. They should be gathered before severe frost.

P. Hair, Chm'n.

---

ON DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

The Committee on Domestic Manufactures beg leave to report that, after a careful examination of the various articles presented, they award the premium to Miss Whites, for her Counterpane.—The articles of the same kind by Mrs. Elmore, Lucinda H. Brown and Miss Schumpert, are of superior quality, reflect great credit upon their skill and industry, and rendered it somewhat difficult for the Committee to decide. The lot of quilts presented by Mrs. Pratt, Mrs. Francis Summers and Miss Margaret Lovel, are of superior workmanship; the Committe recommend the one by Miss Lovel, to the favor of the Society, as it is said to have been executed with one hand. The braided hat and tippet presented by Miss E. Crispen, as also an artificial bouquet presented by her, and one by Mrs. McMorris, are most tasteful productions, and worthy of all praise. These, together with the beautiful specimens of Embroidery presented by Miss Frances Noland and Mrs, D'Oyley, and the paintings by Miss Elizabeth Caidwell, have contributed greatly to the delight of the Society, and are certainly worthy of some more substantial reward than mere praise.

The Committee would further notice, in high terms, the bureaus presented by Messrs. Harris and Mathis—they are fully equal to Northern work, and it is hoped they will recommend them to the patronage of the District. The fans also, and fly brushes by Mr. J. K. Shumpert, evince great skill and ingenuity.

The Committee were much pleased with a specimen of honey presented by Mrs. Suber, also a very rich specimen of butter by Mrs. Stewart and a specimen of large Irish potatoes by Mrs. Elmore. They show how rich the country is in good things, when brought out by proper skill and industry.

W. Harrington, Chm'n.

---

### Winter Cabbage

From the first of July to the first of September, cabbage seed of all varieties may be put in the ground for winter use. Winter cabbage seed may be planted with the early fall turnips, and they will head finely if the soil is good, without transplanting. It is just as easy to have firm head cabbage, as to have the long blue collard-and who does not prefer it? In transplanting fall cabbage let the ground be light and mellow, and plant up to the *first leaf* on the stalk. The common collard may be made to head finely, by taking off the tap root and planting it *deep*. The great enemy of the fall cabbage is the green worm. We have found a free use of lime and ashes dusted into the head, to be a great preventive. but a coop of chickens is the surest remedy. We find that the cabbage, like the turnip seed, matures earlier by being raised in a higher latitude. There are few plants that enter so largely into the daily consumption of our people, as the cabbage tribe, and when it is so easy to raise the blanched and delicate leaf, who will hereafter eat the tough and stringy collard?

---

### Wheat

Mr. Claudius Allen, of Cheshire, Conn., states in the Farmer's Gazette, his mode of preparing seed wheat. He first soaks it 8 or 12 hours in salt brine, in which there is 5 oz. of saltpetre to a bnshel of wheat. It is then put on the floor, and two to four bushels of slacked lime mixed with a bushel of seed. After laying six or eight hours, it is sowed, lime and all. He raised last year 36 bushels of wheat on an acre and a half of land, which was in oats the previous year, and no manure applied to oats or wheat. He has no smut. Cultivates winter wheat, and gets 42 lbs of flour to the bushel. Lime will generally do little good to the crop the first year it is applied, especially recntly slacked, otherwise than to prevent smut; but when applied the previous year, as it is when sowed with winter grain, it may prove beneficial.

---

### Crops Among Fruit Trees.

The size and quality of the fruit of an orchard depend much on the condition of the soil. If the soil becomes exhausted through bad management or excessive cropping, we have no reason to expect much or good fruit from any trees.—The question is often asked, what crops may be raised in an orchard without injury to the trees or fruit? Mr. Cole, in his American Fruit Book, thus remarks.:

"Some crops may be cultivated among fruit trees with profit. Others are injurious. Indian corn and all smaller grains, and crops generally that ripen their seeds, injure trees. Potatoes and other root crops are favorable; so are squashes, and vines generally. Clover, as pasturage, is favorable: as mowing, is injurious. Pasturing orchards with small animals, such as hogs, calves, sheep and poultry, have a good effect, and they destroy insects, as the animals devour the fallen fruit, insects and all. Sheep are good against canker-worms. The treading and rooting of animals destroys or annoys insects in the soil.

"It is more economical to manure liberally and take off crops, as the constituents of vegeta- are generally different from those of trees; but when the trees nearly cover the land, it should be wholly devoted to them, and the manuring and culture continued, as the extra produce and superior quality of the fruit will amply repay the cost. The finest orchard in the country has produced large crops of vegetables that have paid nearly all the expenditures."

---

### The Life of the Farmer.

BY MRS. F. G., OF ANSON CO., N. C.

How independent is the life of the Farmer, and how delightful and honored his occupation! The physician may linger in his office, gazing at the sightless sockets of his ghastly skeletons, or on the shelves at his nauseous drugs, till his own stomach heaves at the sight, or his heart desponds "with hope deferred"—the Lawyer listens in vain for the rap of a client at his door, or sits poring over his dusty old books till his head whirls with too much study and anxiety—the Editor may sit cooped up in his sanctum, culling the choicest morsels to regale the minds of his readers, though himself may go supperless to bed—'tis only the Farmer who is comparatively *independant*. He rises with the dawn and is repaid for the sacrifice by the sweet caroling of the morning lark, as she soars forth on the wing and pours out her grateful matins. Before "the sun has drank the dew" from the flowers, he steps forth with elastic tread and buoyant spirits and "feels himself every inch a man." He inhales with invigorated lungs the pure air of heaven, laden with a thousand delicious perfumes. He listens with delight to the cackling geese, the lowing herds, the bleating iambs and grunting swine. He looks around on his broad acres of rustling corn, waving wheat and bending fruit trees, and "from out of the abundance of his heart his mouth speaketh" these Almighty Farther, these are mine,—mine by the munificence of thy bounty, and "the sweat of my brow."

Then who, with half an eye, but can see the beauty of the Farmer's life?

Professions are dependent one upon another, and all, upon the sturdy Farmer for wherewith to make life pleasant. With a little ingenuity the Planter may convert the "products of field" into food and raiment and there are few articles, really necessary to his comfort, which he cannot himself grow. His garden yields him the choicest vegetables, his fowl yard the fattest poultry and the freshest eggs, and his dairy supplies him with the sweetest butter and richest cream. It has been quaintly written "that an undevout Astronomer is mad," and with propriety may the observation be made of the irreligious Farmer, for he is over surrounded with associations which should prompt him to deeds of piety and generosity. The frequent splendid views he has of the "king of day" as he seems to rise from his silvery bed, to resume his labors and shed his cheerful rays on the gladdened earth—the beautcous scenery which meets his eye at every turn; the new mown grass and luxuriant clover in his meadows, all, everything, are incentives to worship, for who, with soul enough to admire nature, can do less than to adore "nature's Author" too. Ever are his senses of sight, smell, taste and hearing, rejoicing in what to them is most grateful. The manure in his stable yards at which the refined fop recoils and "turns up his nose" in disgust, to him, has no offensive odor. The sight, rather, gladdens his eyes, for he knows that from such corrupt beds of vegetation there will emanate a living source to sustain and cheer those whom he loves and who look to him for support. Then say not ye prudes, ye dainties, ye Laura Matildas, that ye would not be a Farmer's wife. Then, oh! ye would-be-aristocrats, ye dandies, ye soap-locks, contemn not the Farmer's life, for his is a glorious an honored and a god-like calling, for

"Who makes this barren earth
A paradise of wealth,
And fills each humble hearth
With plenty, life and health?
Oh! I would have you know,
They are the men of toil—
The men who reap and sow,
The tillers of the soil."

---

Experience is a torch lighted in the ashes of illusions.—*Eliza Cook.*

### Neglected Manures--Bones.

Analytical Laboratory, Yale College,
*New-Haven, Conn., March 7*, 1850.

Eds. Cultivator—The very important method for application of bones, to which I alluded in the closing paragraph of my last letter, is that of dissolving them in sulphuric acid, the common oil of vitriol. Before describing the various ways of doing this, one or two other points must first be considered.

The first which I would notice is, that the phosphates of lime which compose bones, and in fact all of their earthy parts, are nearly insoluble in water; hence their action, unless added in a state of extremely minute division, or in very large quantity, is often tardy. It is sure and lasting, but the farmer often desires to produce an immediate effect, and that too without adding any very large quantity of the manure which in his neighborhood may be expensive or only procured with difficulty.

The second point relates to sulphuric acid. This is a cheap acid, casting by the carboy, from 2½ to 3 cents per lb., at least in the vicinity of large towns and cities. It is very sour, and extremely corrosive, destroying animal and vegetable structures with great facility; burns through flesh or clothing almost instantly, and a very small portion swallowed is fatal to life; it flows thick and has all the appearance of oil; placed upon wood it blackens and chars it, so that it looks as if it had been burned.

When strong this acid destroys all vegetable life, but when diluted, becomes a valuable manure. If mixed with so much water that the liquid has no perceptibly sour taste, and sprinkled over fields by means of a water cart or other convenient machine, a very remarkable fertilizing effect is produced on many soils, thus proving that the acid itself contains something useful to plants. In certain situations it has been found to give very fair crops of turneps without the aid of any other manure.

We may now proceed to an account of the changes which take place when this is applied to bones, and of the beneficial nature of the compound produced.

Various ways have been recommended for dissolving the bones, and I will mention a few of the most successful. The first step in all cases, is to dilute the acid with two or three times its bulk of water. If used of full strength, it chars and blackens, but does not disolve the bones. When they are crushed into small pieces, or powdered, one-third their weight of acid is sufficient to dissolve them; if whole and large, less than half will not do it completely.

A very common way of managing the solution, is to put the bones into an old hogshead or other convenient vessel, and then pour half or two-thirds the proper quantity of diluted acid upon them; they should be occasionally stirred, and if not dissolved after a day or two, the remainder of the acid may be added.

Another way which I have found very effectual, is to break down the bones and lay them in a heap, on a place where the acid cannot soak away. It should be poured in successive portions on the top of the heap, at intervals of half a day, turning and mixing thoroughly each time By both of these methods the bones are finally dissolved, or at least crumbled down to a soft pasty mass, that is mostly soluble in water. The solution is more ready if the bones are powdered slightly, moistened and laid in a heap, to ferment a month before use.

Several chemical changes take place while the bones are dissolving. When the acid is first added, a bubbling up or effervescence occurs; this is owing to the decomposition of whatever carbonate of lime may be present. The carbonic acid goes off, and the sulphuric acid unites with the lime, forming sulphate of lime or common gypsum, which is as all know an excellent manure for most soils.

The sulphuric acid then attacks the phosphate of lime also, and unites with a portion of its lime forming sulphate of lime again. The remainder of the lime is still united with all the phosphoric acid; of course each pound of lime has much more of it than before, thus forming what is called a bi-phosphate or super-phosphate of lime, from its containing a double portion of phosphoric acid. This is much more soluble than the ordinary phosphate.

The acid also acts upon the organic matter or gelatine of the bones, bringing it into a state more readily soluble, and better fitted to supply the wants of plants. Thus we have sulphate of lime, superphosphate of lime, and soluble organic substances; all being manures of great value, and in states easily appropriated by the plant.

The bones when dissolved, are sometimes applied simply mixed with water. The water is added till no tase of sourness can be perceived, and the lquid is then distributed by a water cart. It produces in many cases most remarkable effects. In fact, when applied in this way, they are more efficacious than in any other, because they are more finely divided and more evenly distributed. It is, however, an inconvenient and expensive method, and hence it is more usual to mix the dissolved bones with charred peat, or ashes, or vegetable mould, or sawdust, in sufficient quantity to dry up the acid, and make a compound which can be sown by hand or by a drill machine.

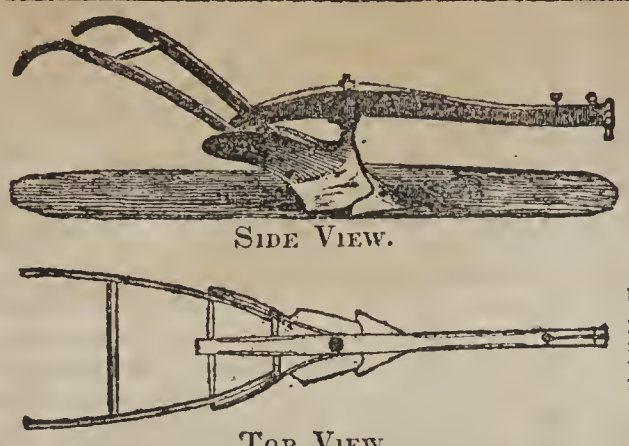
From the composition already given of this manure, it is obvious that it must be one of much value, and the results of its application in practice, fully confirm our theoretical conclusions.

It is found that of many crops, from two to four bushels of dissolved bones produce an effect equal to 16 to 20 bushels of bone dust, which latter has already been described as one of the most powerful manures used. It is a *cheap* application also; two bushels of bone dust would certainly not be worth more than 50 cents, and would weigh from 100 to 120 lbs. 50 lbs. of acid to dissolve them would cost $1.50, making a total expense of $2. This, with half the quantity of ordinary manure, is found quite enough for an acre, and thus appears to be far cheaper than any thing else that could be used with like effect.

Bones enough to fertilize several acres in this way, could be collected in the course of a year on every farm, and their use cannot be too strongly recommended. The trouble of preparation is little, save in imagination, and few who once make trial of them in the way here prescribed, will meet with disappointment. The mixture of dissolved bones and peat or ashes mentioned above, is to be applied either broadcast or sown in drills. This latter method is best in many cases, because it brings the manure in a position more directly and easily accessible to the roots. It should be sown in the bottom of the drill, and then a light furrow over, and the seed above so as not to come in immediate contact with the mixture.—This is for turneps and that class of crops. For wheat and grain it is best sown broad cast or by a machine.

Machines which sow the manures of this kind, and the seed at the same time are used in England and would be valuable here.

John P. Norton.



Side View.



Top View.

### Double mould-board Plow.

This is a light one-horse plow, used for opening drills to plant potatoes, corn, &c. In plowing out between narrow rows, it throws the dirt both ways to the plant, and thus does the work of two plows.

It is also very useful in digging potatoes. It is a very convenient implement for various kinds of work, ditching, &c., and should always be kept on the farm.

---

From the Rome (Ga.) Southerner.

### Clover at the South.

I read in your last, an article upon the subject of clover, writen by "A Farmer." Believing his communication to be highly interesting to the country, I send you this on the same subject. He showed that bottom land was well adapted to the growth of clover. The experiment made by me proves that hill land in this country will also produce clover.

I have four acres enclosed on the top of the hill, half a mile from the Rolling Mill; it was cleared two years ago, and put in corn the first year, without any manure produced about six barrels to the acre. In September of that year, I scattered six-

ty wagon loads of manure on it and plowed it in. In October I put in wheat, which promised very fine, the succeeding spring. In February following, I sowed, on the wheat, red clover. This was badly put down, about one and a half gallons to the acre. After the clover, I put on plaster of Paris, one bushel to the acre. On the 15th and 16th of April following, a frost killed the wheat to the ground, when it was headed and in blossom. It was permitted to stand, and in June was cut. I gathered a great deal of straw and but little grain There appeared to be but little clover—not half a stand. It continued to come, however through the summer and fall; and in March of this year there appeared to be a fair stand of clover. On two-thirds of the ground, the whole lot was pretty well set with it,—with Volunteer Timothy, Red top, and a little Volunteer Wheat. In May last I mowed it. The product when taken off and weighed upon the scales was over 17,000 pounds of hay valued, at this time, at our place, at $15 per ton. At this date, the clover appears again, and shows a good stand all over the lot. With ordinary seasons the product in clover between this and September next, should equal four tons. This will be supposed to remain for seed. Perhaps your readers may say the manure did this. It is true, in part. What the manure has done, however, up to date, we expect the clover to repeat for us, by proper plowing as long as the land shall be cultivated. The clover will reset itself indefinitely and admit of a rotation of crops, corn, oats, wheat and clover, This I have proved by an experiment of ten years—I have this spring put down forty acres of hill land near this place, in clover and orchard grass, which shows a better stand than the four acre lot above referred to did at the same stage. Connected with this, allow me to state, that while attending the last Baptist Convention, in May last, I saw delivered at Marietta depot, several loads or Northern hay, the cost of which could not be much short of twenty dollars per ton. I give it as my opinion, founded on observtion and experiment, that Cherokee Georgia, can supply the Atlantic States from Florida to Virginia with hay, and the island of Cuba also. In doing which, it will double the value of the lands, and triple the produet in grain now produced, in ten years from the present time. This can be done with the labor power now in the country and its natural increase.

Respectfully yours,

MARK A. COOPER

*Etowah, Ga, June* 12, 1850.

---

TO BRING THE DROWNED TO LIFE.—At this season of the year, when so many fatal accidents are occurring, the following advice, which we have, perhaps, before published, is particularly opportune:

"Immediately as the body is removed from the water, press the chest suddenly and forcibly downward and backward, and instantly discontinue the pressure. Repeat this violent interruption until a pair of bellows can be procured. When obtained, introduce the muzzle well upon the base of the tongue. Surround the mouth with a towel or handkerchief, and close it. Direct a bystander to press firmly upon the projecting part of the neck (Adam's apple) and use the bellows actively. Then press upon the chest to expel the air from the lungs, to imitate the natural breathing. Continue this at least an hour, or until signs of natural breathing come on.

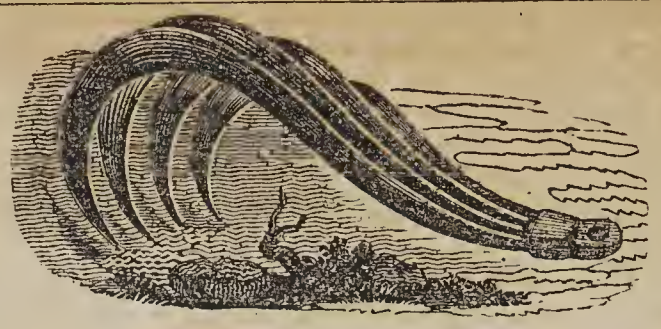
Wrap the body in blankets, place it near a fire, and do every thing to preserve the natural warmth, as well as to impart an artificial heat, if possible. Every thing, however, is secondary to inflating the lungs. Send for a medical man immediately.

Avoid all frictions until respiration shall be in some degree restored.

VALENTINE MOTT.

---

**The Bush or Root-puller.**



THE BUSH OR ROOT-PULLER.

This is a very useful implement to attach to bushes, clumps of roots, and bogs, for the purpose of pulling them out of the ground. It is made with two, three, or four claws.—These are hooked to the bush close to the ground; the cattle are then attached to it by a chain, when the bush and roots are easily hauled out. It will do the work of half a dozen men in grubbing and clearing.

---

**Ground food for Stock.**

FEW persons seem to be aware of the importance of grinding every variety of grain, before feeding it to animals. In fattening any kind of animals, it is all important. There is no animal's stomach that can digest any variety of grain with a cortical covering. All animals that swallow a single kernel without crushing, void it whole; and what is singular, after passing the ordeal of the gastic juice, the heat and digestive organs of the stomach, and the whole intestinal canal, the seed will still germinate and grow. Horned cattle are not careful chewers of their food, as they depend upon rumination to comminute their food properly, in which grain, meal and roots, are never brought up to undergo that process. The hog is a notorious gormandizer, and scarcely chews at all; and it is said that of three hogs confined in a narrow stall, and only the first one fed what corn he can eat, the middle one will fatten fastest, and the last one keep in good order. The horse masticates better, but age and hard fare often disable him from performing such duty as is required to render his food fit to produce the nutriment it contains.

The stomach is a macerating vessel where all the food is intended to be dissolved, and its nutrious parts to be taken up and carried to the blood, to be distributed and deposited on all the tissues. The period that all particles take in dissolving, is exactly in proportion to their bulk. A cube of salt or of loaf sugar, if divided in two, will dissolve in water in half the time it would whole; as will metals in acids, or ice in the sun.

In every point of view, therefore, either for profitable expenditure or the speedy fattening of animals, the grinding and comminuting the food has nearly one half the advantage over the ordinary process; and, if cooked, saves the stomach and its complicated organs and nerves, the exertion of cooking it there—as cooked, it has to be, before digestion. It is the opinion of close observers that fully one half the expense of sustaining and fattening is saved.

In feeding horses or cattle, for simply carrying them through the winter, if what grain they are entitled to was ground and their hay or straw cut, mixed and properly moistened, the saving would amount to quite an item—every inch of hay or straw would be eaten and nothing lost. Two-thirds the quantity now fed in racks for the horses to pull under their feet, and that fed to cattle on the ground, and trodden down and spoiled, would suffice to carry stock through the winter. But habit is everything; it is stronger than the ties of family affection, the good-will and confidence of the world, or the hopes of salvation, as is evinced by the inebriate—and it holds good in all the duties and actions of life. If we had been habituated from youth to cut, cook and prepare food for our valuable animals, the most beneficent gifts of the Creator, should we not look with astonishment at the practice of waste and mismanagement now in general use!

In England, where necessity teaches people wisdom—where ten to twenty dollars rent is paid for an acre of land—they manage things differently. In that country, where the best work horses, in the world are kept and the fattest animals sent to market, every particle of food is cut and ground; and horses food often baked into loaves. Their experience has settled the most economical process and necessity enforces it. Our whole system of feeding is wrong. The under-cover stall feeding is the only true one, both as respects the saving of provender, the comfort of the animals, and the value of the manure.—*Rural New Yorker.*

---

From the Abbeville Banner.

**The Cultivation of Corn.**

MR. EDITOR:—Perhaps the following remarks may be somewhat novel to your readers, yet no more novel than true.

As I stated in a former article, I have been an observer of passing events for many years, and in the course of my observation have seen some farmers make good crops of corn, and others with the same kind of land made very little, and upon enquiry I have found that they both planted

at the same time and both plowed and hoed the same number of times. In reflecting upon the subject I have been led to search out the cause, and after due deliberation have come to the following conclusion: That the difference must arise from the manner in which it was planted. I remember, when a boy, the old people used to break up their land with a two-horse bar-share plow, and when planting laid off their rows with the same and covered lightly with a hoe. But as matters were thought to improve, the shovel plow took the place of the bar-share, and it was supposed the narrower the better, as it left a quantity of loose mould in the bottom of the furrow. At length the gopher was brought into action, and for the convenience of plowing the corn, the first time it was used to lay off the rows, and then two furrows were thrown up, forming a considerable ridge and leaving the corn to get up through it as best it could. Some times when the seasons suited, it came up very well, and being elevated the ridge became warm and the corn grew well for a while, but when the weather became hot, it has often been seen to wilt or even dry up more or less, the shoots and tassels died and brought no fruit to perfection, while that which was planted in a deep furrow and covered shallow and the mould thrown to it afterwards, has kept green all the while, and the result has been that a good crop was realized.

Viewing these things I have been led to philosophise a little on the subject; and seek out the nature of corn. And here I would say to that portion of your readers, who are in the habit of looking at things in their proper light, you have doubtless noticed that corn has no tap root, but spreads out what I have heard called the spur roots, you I suppose have noticed when corn is planted there is a stem from the grain (no matter how deep) to near the surface before any roots are formed, and this being the case, where your corn is elevated the roots are comparatively on the top of the earth, and when the wind blows or the sun shines hot, your corn is blown down by the one, or withered by the other, or perhaps both.

Taking these things all together, I have been led to try some experiments, in doing which, have arrived at the following, that for up land the best plan is to break up the soil as deep as you well can, and if you think best to drill your corn, lay off your rows with a large shovel just as deep as possible. If you cover with a hoe, let it be just deep enough to retain moisture about the grains, and if you cover with a plow let it be a gopher and throw two furrows upon it, forming a small ridge, then follow with a board on your plow stock just long enough to reach across the ridge and cut it off down near the corn. I admit that corn planted after this fashion will grow rather slow at first, but take a narrow gopher to run round it be sure to thin out in proper time, giving good distance, and dont be afraid to plow deep. The first and second plowings, if your corn will bear it you will do well to use a turn plow, some call them twisters, by which you will be able to throw a deep bed to your corn and the roots will expand through this bed, consequently it will stand a drought, and should the season be wet, the beds thus formed drains the surplus water from your corn so there will be danger of its scalding, and we may with some degree of confidence look to be rewarded for our labor.

I hope the above remarks will lead some who have erred hitherto, to reflect and likewise act, giving the plan above suggested a fair trial. If they do I think they will be constrained at least to admit, the old man has not lived for naught. A Little Farmer.

## Horticultural Department.

### Dwarf Fruit Trees.

A few years ago, nobody sought for dwarf trees. Scarcely anybody knew of such things. The tall standard with a bare trunk six or eight feet high, was the only form of trees recognized for all sorts of circumstances. The little village garden of 50 by 20, or the orchard of twenty acres, were placed upon precisely the same footing in this respect. The consequence was, that small gardens were entirely unavailable to fruit culture beyond a few gooseberry or currant bushes; and thousands and tens of thousands of our citizens in all parts of the country, who will in a few years have charming little gardens of dwarf trees, were quite excluded from all the pleasure and profit which this interesting culture cannot fail to yield. People every where in our cities and villages, who have but a small lot of ground to cultivate, are very naturally delighted with these trees so admirably adapted to their circumstances.—Old people, too, who could not reasonably hope to reap the fruits of standard trees that never yield in less than six to ten years, are planting dwarfs, because in two year at most they may gather their fruits. Thus two large classes of persons heretofore quite excluded from fruit culture are now brought in, and are in fact the most active. Whole orchards, too, of these dwarf trees, pears in particular, are being planted for the growth of fruit for the market; and when we consider that not one out of a hundred will die in planting—that 300 to 500 may be put on an acre of ground—and that in two or three year at most they begin to bear—we do not see why they will not be profitable. Many are also very judiciously filling the spaces between standard pear and apple trees, with pyramidal pear trees on quince stocks, considering that at th end of twelve or fifteen years, when their standard trees have attained good size, and have come into full bearing, and the dwarf trees begin to be in the way, they can very well afford to cast them off.—This system of managing orchards is extensively practised in France, where orchards and fruit gardens are models for all the world. It cannot but be highly advantageous in this country, at least in all the older districts, where land is valuable, and fruit growing an important pursuit. An orchard of five acres, for example, will at thirty feet apart each way, contain but two hundred, and forty two standard trees. Among these we can put in seven hundred and twenty six dwarf or pyrimidal trees at fifteen feet distance all around. Until the eighth or tenth year, the standard trees will yield nothing worth reckoning upon, but from the third or fourth year, the dwarfs will yield a considerable income, and by the seventh or eighth year, they will produce not less than from $1 to $4 worth per tree.

When the standards require more ground, a part or the whole of the others may be removed, as the case will require. This gives to pear orcharding a very different aspect from that in which it usually appears, by reducing the period at which the income begins, nearly or quite ten years—equal to one-fourth the time that any one now, upwards of twenty-one years of age, can expect to live.

The planting of standard trees of any sort in small gardens, will unquestionably cease within a few years, as soon as people generally have acquired a little more information and experience in the different departments of tree culture, and trees suitable for it more extensively propagated. The peach and the apricot can be kept small enough for any moderate sized garden, by having them low headed and properly shortened-in. Where very small trees are desirable, they may be worked on plum stocks. A few years ago, when we commenced the introduction of these trees, many persons who pretended to know something about tree cultnre, but in reality knew nothing, raised a cry against dwarf trees as being "short lived and worthless;" but we hear nothing of that now. People begin to understand that if they dont live a hundred years, they bear early, look well in their gardens, and are easily replaced when they die out by old age.—*Genesee Farmer.*

### Vegetable Calendar for September.

TURNIPS.

Now sow full crops of all kinds of turnips, as the weather is much cooler and moister, than July or August, there is a greater likelihood of your succeeding now, than when sown in these months.

RUTA BAGAS.

If you have not yet sown your main crop of rutabagas, do it at once.

*Dale's yellow hybrid*, is a good kind to sow in this month.

If you sowed ruta bagas in seed beds last month, to be transplanted when fit to some other spot, take advantage of the first suitable day, and put them out, for if

allowed to remain in the seed bed too long, they are apt to draw up, and become unhealthy and weak.

ONIONS

Sow your general crop to plant out in October and November. Let your beds be well dug and manured, lay them off about four feet wide, draw slight drills twelve inches apart, and sow the seed regularly and pretty thick. The white Portugal, silver skinned, Maderia, yellow Strasburg, and Deptford red, are very good kinds. Seed of your own raising is much to be preferred.

CARROTS AND BEETS.

Sow at any time in this month a full crop, and they may do well, but be sure the seed is *genuine European*, or they will run to seed early in the spring, at a time when they will be most desired.

SWISS CHARD.

This is a species of white beet, very common in Switzerland and France, where it is considered the best of all spinaceous plants. The mode of cultivation is simple and in every respect like the the beet. Let two or three seeds be dibbled in, eight or ten inches apart in the rows, which may be two feet assunder; and when well set, thin out to single plants.

Those pulled up, may be transplanted like cabbage plants. The soil should be rich, and they must be kept clear of weeds while young, and well watered in dry weather. They yield an abundance of fine luxuriant foliage, which shades and blanches the foot stalks causing them to be very tender and delicate. The leaves are boiled and used as spinach; but the midribs of leaf stalks, for which it is principally cultivated, are dressed and served up like asparagus; these are very large, some of them three inches in diameter, and very white and tender.

CABBAGE.

You may sow in this month the genuine European seed. Sow only a little, for your main sowings must be in October. You must now transplant all the plants you may have, that are fit to be handled.

CAULIFLOWERS AND BROCOLI.

Set out all the plants you may have left.

SNAP BEANS.

Sow your last crop of this bean early in this month, and if the weather is mild, in October you will get a good supply of pickles.

SPINAGE.

Sow more spinage to succeed the former sowings.

ENDIVE.

If desired, sow early in this month as you would lettuce.

LETTUCE.

Sow for a full supply, to be put out for use in winter. Transplant such as are fit from the sowings of last month.

CELERY.

You may transplant more celery at any time in this month, but do it as early as possible.

Do not neglect to haul the earth up to such plants as are already planted out and require it; taking care that you do it in dry weather.

RADISHES.

Sow salmon, short top, and turnip radishes, and if the weather is dry, give moderate waterings every evening.

CRESSES, WHITE MUSTARD AND SALADING.

Sow these seeds at any time in this month; for a regular supply, sow every week or ten days.

The curled cress or pepper grass, is the best kind; sow in little drills one foot apart, and cut before it comes into rough leaf.

## Useful Receipts.

### Cure for a Bellowsed Horse.

Some few weeks since, being overtaken by a severe thunder storm on my way home, I took refuge under a shelter where were assembled several gentlemen from the same cause. One of the gentlemen thus accosted me:—Why do you not cure your horse of the bellows? For the very reason that I cannot, I replied.

Well, stranger, says he, when I am at home I cure all such cases, and warrant them, at ten dollars a head; but as I am a long way from home and your horse is valuable one, I will tell you how you can cure him effectually in a few days. In the first place, says he, give your horse salt in his water for three mornings in succession; after that pound up a piece of blue-stone about the size of a chinquepin, and mix it with wet meal, give him the same for ten consecutive mornings, feeding him rather lightly for those ten days, and if he is not well at the end of the ten days I will give you my head.

I have tried the remedy, and it has wrought a perfect cure, and now give it to the readers of the Enquirer that they may save their horses and their ten dollars too.—*Columbus Enquirer.*

Cure for Heartburn.—Drop 15 or 20 drops of water of ammonia (not the strongest preparation), into two ounces of almond mixture, or of common water.—This is a powerful remedy for heartburn, and other cases of morbid acidity of the stomach.

Remedy for Mildew.—Apply flour of sulphur to the plants the moment the mildew appears.—*Gardners' Chronicle*

To Make Butter Fritters.—Take half a pound of flour, one ounce of butter, (which melt,) the whites of three eggs, well beaten, half a glass of beer, and enough water to make a thick batter.

Cure for Burns and Scalds.—Take soot from a chimney, where wood is burned, rub it fine, and mix one part soot to three parts of hog's lard, spread this on linen or muslin. If in very extensive burns or scalds, the cloth should be torn into strips before putting over the scald, let the remedy be freely and fully applied, so as perfectly to cover the wound. No other application is required until the patient is well except to apply fresh applications of the soot and lard, &c. In steamboat explosions this remedy can in nearly all cases be at once applied, and if done, many valuable lives will be saved, and a vast amount of suffering alleviated.

Paint for Iron Work.—Take one part of Stockholm tar, and two parts of gas tar, lay it on while quite hot, with a brush, spreading it as thinly as possible.

Cracks or joints, in a stove may be readily closed in a moment with a composition consisting of wood ashes and common salt, made into a paste with a little water, plastered over the crack. The effect is equally certain whether the stove be cold or hot. Try it.

Southern Recipe for Okra Soup. — Very early in the morning, set the pot over the fire with a shin of beef, washed and picked clean, and ten quarts of cold water; add a tablespoonful of salt. When it boils, draw it from the fire, and carefully take off the skum. If the skum should sink, it must be strained through a cloth that has been washed in scalding water to remove the unpleasant taste, a cloth is apt to communicate to hot liquids which pass through them. While the soup is boiling, throw in a peck of okra cut in slices, and three or four small onions. About an hour afterwards, add two quarts of tomatoes peeled, and cut in slices, throwing out the seeds. Season with pepper, and such herbs as suit your taste. Let it boil slowly until dinner time. Pick the bones and meat carefully out; cut up some of the gristle in short pieces, and return them to the soup; and then throw a few leaves of fresh parsley on it, after it is in the tureen.

Corn Bread.—Readers never tire of recipes for something good to eat. Here are two for corn bread worth trying:—

Mix three pints of Indian meal in one quart of sour milk; add three eggs, a teaspoonful saleratus, and some salt; beat all to a smooth batter, and pour in pans half an inch deep, and bake quick This is a sufficient breakfast for half a dozen.

Here is one for family bread:—Six quarts of water, one pint of lard, one pint of yeast, and a tea-cupful of salt, mixed with meal enough to make a batter Let it rise and then put in pans to bake.

Egg Cream;—Take the yolk of an egg, with a dessert-spoonful of cream, or new milk, and if convenient, add two drops of oil of cinnamon; this will form a mixture sufficient to serve three people to mix with their tea; for cream being chiefly the oil of the milk, and the yolk the most nutritive part of the egg, they are both lubricating and nourishing. The oil of cinnamon is cordial and tonic.

The above has been recommended in disease of the lungs, where there is a difficulty of breathing, with a short dry cough, especially after eating or motion; also in fits of hectic fever towards the evening, and night perspiration.

Weeds exhaust the strength of the ground, and if suffered to grow may be called garden sins.

The Farmer and Planter.

PENDLETON, S. C.

Vol. I., No. 7::::September, 1850.

### Wool Growing in the South.

The following sensible remarks are taken from the "*Wool Grower,*" a most excellent paper published, by T. C. Peters, at Buffalo, N. Y. and devoted primarily to the wool growing interest of the United States. It is true almost beyond a question in our opinion, as we have before said, that "there is no region under the sun" better adapted to "wool growing" than our own. There is a wide belt extending through the middle of the Southern States, in climate, in the adaptation to grasses, in cheapness of the lands, that is no where surpassed in the inducements it holds out to the raising of sheep.

Nothing stands in the way of individual fortunes and national wealth but the removal of old prejudices, and an active interest and lively energy in this pursuit. It is, in a small way, within the reach of the man of moderate means—and the field is large enough to satisfy the aspirations of the more wealthy and avaricious:

"We have before us some very fine samples of wool received from Mr. Davison, of Culpeper Co., Virginia. It is surprising that so little attention is paid to this subject, throughout the whole length and breadth of the Southern States. It does seem to us that there is no region under the sun, where wool can be raised so cheaply as there. They have the climate and a vast amount of pasturage that is now lying idle. There is no stock a farmer can breed that will compare with sheep for profit. The fleece comes annually, and the carcass is always valuable. For a warm climate, mutton is the most healthful meat, as well as the cheapest. Why don't the planters go more into the business? We have often asked the question, but get as yet no answer.

On a great many plantations, it does seem to us that there would be no difficulty in inducing the negroes to give up their dogs, and keep a sheep or two in their place—a small premium for the fleece or the lambs, would soon make the sheep a part of the household. It has been urged that the blacks will not make good shepherds.—We do not believe any such thing. We think they would make the very best with a little instruction, and the older people, who could not work hard in the field would do well with the sheep in their summer rambles."

### Lime and Marl.

Those who have given attention to agricultural chemistry without exception approve of and recommend the use of lime and marl to planters, and yet, the experience of some would not seem to verify the theory that they are fertilizing ingredients, and of great value to the planter.—Nor is this wonderful. Men frequently make a single experiment, and that too at random, with lime, and the increase of production not coming up to their expectations, are disappointed, denounce its use, and with it the whole body of those that recommend it, when the failure is wholly to be ascribed to their own want of correct knowledge of the nature of lime and its proper application. It should not be expected that an indiscriminate application of lime or marl to all kinds of soils, whether clayey or sandy, whether having a superabundance or there being a deficiency of vegetable matter, would add equally to their productiveness.

To some soils hundreds of bushels of burned lime to the acre would not be too much, to others one bushel would be an injury rather than a benefit. This is in accordance with theory and the experience of all who have given lime a fair trial and observed its operations faithfully.

The fertility of a soil, or capability to produce, depends in a degree upon the relative amount of organic and inorganic matter it contains. It may contain lime, potash, soda, magnesia, the phosphates in abundance, and yet be nothing but an arid, barren, desert, or it may be three feet deep in vegetable mould and without these mineral ingredients wholly unproductive. Now if a given soil be deficient in vegetable matter, and we add to the mineral constituents it already has, we injure rather than benefit the land. If there be a relative excess of organic substances and we apply vegetable manure, we remove the soil further from that state of equilibrium which is necessary to its productiveness.

It is obviously, then, the proper course, if land has been by bad culture reduced or exhausted of its inorganic elements, to supply these by the applications of lime, wood ashes, &c. There is little danger of applying too much lime when there is sufficient leaves, grass and weeds for it to act upon, and there is as little danger of too much vegetable manure where there is a high per cent. of lime.

The great rule in the absence of an analysis of the soil must be found in experiments, which should be conducted with system and caution.—Let those who can obtain lime, or which is the same thing marl, and there is a great abundance in the lower region of this State, apply it not in the expectation of doubling their crops the first or second year, beginning with small quantities and increasing the quantity on different plats for successive seasons, its effects in the given case will then be evident, and the question answered satisfactorily whether lime or marling is worth the attention of the experimenter. In most cases we doubt not the success of the experiment would be triumphant and the marl beds found exhaustless treasures to the planter.

The term marl, says Prof. Tuomey in his Geological report of Alabama, is applied by European agricultural writers to any clay containing an appreciable quantity of lime; but in this country, Edmund Ruffin, Esq., of Virginia, who is our best authority on this subject, has restricted the term to the deposits composed of clay, sand, and lime derived from fossil shells. In New Jersey, the name is applied to the cretaceous green sand of that State, which frequently contains not a particle of lime

From what has been said of the rocks of the cretaceous and tertiary systems of Alabama, in the preceding pages, it will appear that all calcareous rocks appertaining to them come under this definition, so that they may be called marl, or marl stone, according to the degree of induration that they present.

In every country where agriculture has made any real progress, lime is ranked among the most important fertilizing ingredients, and every one who is at all acquainted with the progress of Agriculture in the United States, must be familiar with the estimation in which lime is held in Pennsylvania and Virginia. In Pennsylvania, lime-burning for agricultural purposes is an important business, and in eastern Virginia, that form of carbonate of lime called marl, has been used for the last 20 years.

In whatever form the lime is applied, the amount of that substance present, is generally considered the standard of its value, and agriculturists speak of marl and calcareous manures in general, as rich or poor, strong or weak, in proportion to the per centage of carbonate of lime present in them. The marls of Virginia contain from 25 to 60 per cent. of carbonate of lime, and the greater part of the marl used there does not exceed 40 per cent.

The rotten limestone of our cretaceous formation has an amount of lime varying from 25 to 45 per cent.; while the limestone of the tertiary formations has as high as 95 per cent. of carbonate of lime, and they both frequently contain phosphate of lime in notable quantity. The marls of the State are so situated, as to be often surrounded by poor silicious soils deficient in lime. To such soils the argillaceous rotten limestone of the prairies would be an excellent application; and even the deep soils overlying this limestone, where they have been long cultivated, may be deficient in lime near the surface, and if so, would be greatly benefitted by a top dressing of marl. We have as yet no experiments to guide us in the application of marl, which, after all, present the only safe guide, especially as there appears to be some diversity of opinion among planters at the South in relation to the practice of marling, and even to the results produced by it. In south Carolina, it has not met the expectation of planters in general, although many have been eminently successful in its use.

There will always be failures in the application of every new process, arising from want of correct knowledge as to the principles involved in it, or from the disregard of those principles. Mr. Ruffin has always inculcated caution in the application of marl, and has very clearly pointed out the usual causes of failure. In allusion to the apparent want of success in South Carolina, he writes:* "I have been induced to publish a statement of the expenses and profits of my farming operations for the years since I left South Carolina. The article shows the *returns* from marling, as my former communication to the State Agricultural Society of South

* Southern Quar. Rev., p. 162, 12, Oct. 1840.

Carolina showed the cheapness of the operation, the series I thought well suited to convince your countrymen, by *facts* and my labors, in the short time since I left Carolina, of what I failed to impress on them by my reasoning and efforts of persuasion. But I fear that nothing can induce them to marl *in the proper manner*, even when doing any thing in that way. I have been grieved to hear that all my preaching on this subject has served to do but little good even to my few converts; and they on whose example and labors I relied, to justify all I have urged, have failed to realize any *great* improvement. Their failure is due to the same cause, viz: not giving the land rest, and the time and means to supply itself with vegetable matter in proportion to the amount of lime supplied. In the few small cases in which this was done, (by accident rather than design,) before I left South Carolina, and which was duly reported, the success of the marling was most signal, and might have been so in every case, by meeting the same requirements. This is the whole cause of difference of results between South Carolina marling and mine. What I then *taught*, I have since (as well as before) *practised*. Judging from the results of such *practice*, what would have been the increase of general wealth in South Carolina, if every planter, having access to calcareous manures, had, during these five years been improving in the same maner?"

I know not how better to recommend this subject to the attention of our planters, and to enable them to avoid mistakes, than by pointing out to them briefly the mode in which calcareous manures in general operate, in producing their known effects in the soil:

1. A certain amount of lime is found in all plants, and we must therefore infer that it constitutes a necessary ingredient in their proper food: besides, many of our marls contain phosphate of lime, a highly valuable substance.

2. It neutralizes the injurious effects of certain noxious salts that may exist in the soil, such as sulphate of iron, &c., by decomposing them, and thereby often converting them into valuable fertilizing ingredients, as where sulphate of iron forms sulphate of lime, or gypsum.

3. It promotes the decomposition of vegetable matter that may be in the soil, such as the roots and other remains of the preceeding crops: and by thus bringing it into that state in which it absorbs nitrogen, it converts inert vegetable matter into a highly valuable manure. Decomposition of such matter is promoted by the neutralization of the organic acids generated during decomposition, and which are highly antiseptic.

4. It also acts as a solvent of the silicates in the soil, which would otherwise remain there as useless constituents.

5. Lime acts mechanically on the soils by altering their physical properties; and in this way stiff clay soils are rendered less tenacious, and light soils have their retentive powers increased.

Important as lime is as a constituent of plants, it is obvious that its principle value is due to its action on the materials of the soil; and hence no one would think of applying it directly to the roots of plants, as manures are, that contain several ingredients, and act chiefly by furnishing nutriment. Its greatest effects are produced, where it is intimately mixed with the soil; but no specific rules can be given as to the quantity to be aplied to a given space. What would be excellent practice in one place, would be ruinous in another—500 bushels of caustic lime are often applied to an acre of land in England, while with us 30 to 40 bushels is considered a dose that may not be exceeded without danger. Of course, the more organic matter in the soil, the greater the quantity of lime that may be applied, and on poor sandy soils, without the addition of vegetable matter, it may be hazardous to apply any. As an illustration of this, I may mention, that I saw cotton growing in the rich vegetable mould of the cane-brake, mixed with so much marl that I am certain, that in less favored soils, it would prove ruinous. A greater quantity of marl may be applied, of course, than of caustic lime. The dose will vary with the strength of the marl, as well as with the circumstances just mentioned; for instance, a greater quantity of the rotten limestone may be applied than of the white limestone of Clarke. In general, the quantity may vary between 150 and 200 bushels, but in the absence of experiment, it will always be prudent to proceed cautiously, to add organic manures, and, if possible, to apply the lime or marl before the fallow.

The green sand of Clarke and Choctaw require the same caution, not on account of the green sand, but the lime, for the beds, as I have stated, are rich in that substance. In New Jersey where green sand abounds, it is often applied at the rate of 400 bushels per acre, and is frequently brought from a distance of many miles.

It would be difficult to find a region better supplied, than Alabama is, with this highly valued means of improving the soil, whether we consider the richness of the marl, or the ease with which it may be procured.

There is, as I have stated, a great difference in the agricultural value of the various beds of marl, and even in the same bluff, the amount of lime varies between wide limits; thus, at Claiborne, the lower bed next the river does not contain more than 20 per cent. of carbonate of lime, whilst the shelly stratum has 50, and the overlying white limestone 60 per cent. It would be no difficult labor to raise marl from the face of the bluff, as the plane and machinery are already erected. The green sand bed at Baker's Bluff, contains not more than 5 or 6 per cent. of lime, at the same time that the grains of green sand constitute 33 per cent. of the entire mass.

But the white limestone, and particularly that portion of it, containing the coral *Orbitoides*, surpasses all the rest in amount of lime; it is in truth nearly a pure carbonate of lime, and, in general, contains over 95 per cent. of that substance.

This is the rock used for the construction of chimnies in Clarke, but its fire proof character is the most remarkable. The heat of an open fire place is not intense enough to drive off the carbonic acid, and the rock is porous enough to allow the escape of moisture, and expansion without cracking. It is surprising that this rock has excited no interest out of the neighborhood where it occurs, considering its peculiar adaption to the construction of domestic fire-places

### Electricity.

The frequency of thunder storms during this summer, attended with the loss of many human lives and destruction of property, has reminded us of the importance of every one's being acquainted with the nature of the electric fluid, and using every precautionary means against its destroying power. Though it does not exhibit itself in the phenomena of thunder and lightning, it is at all times present in the atmosphere, and is produced by the condensation and evaporation of aqueous vapor, and by the friction of opposite currents of wind accompanied with changes of temperature. By the electrometer it is found to exist in a higher degree when warm weather follows a succession of rainy days or when wet weather follows a succession of dry days. Unless the producing cause be rapid and sudden, the electricity evolved dissipates, and there is not a sufficient accumulation to exhibit the phenomena of noise and light, and we are therefore not admonished of its existence. It is nevertheless not the less certainly present and performing its salutary offices in the atmosphere. As might be inferred, a priori, from its causes, it is said by Arago never to manifest itself in thunder storms beyond the latitude of 75°—and very seldom beyond that of 65°. The thunder and lightning are only the consequents and not the constituent parts of the electric fluid, the latter being evolved from the sudden compression of the air, and the former produced by a collapse of the air to fill the vacuum created by the passage of the fluid. Silent intrinsically and omnimpotent to destroy as supposed for thousands of years, it has at length been subjugated by the philosophers will, and yields a ready submission to his control.

Now since it is made so easy a matter to protect our lives while within our dwellings, and our property too, from the awful casualties of thunder storms which we see almost every day chronicled in the public journals, is it not amazingly strange that so few of us do it? Throughout the country there is probably not more than one householder in a hundred whose dwelling, and much less his kitchen, is furnished with a lightning rod. We talk much, very much, about the loss of life upon rail roads and other modes of public travel, and pour out the bitterest curses on those who are careless of the safety of their passengers, holding them responsible for accidents as far as possible, while with safety in our own hands, or within our own reach, the number of deaths by lightning is not very insignificant in comparison.

There is now an exchange lying before us with five separate accounts of the awfully sad destructiveness of the merciless thunder bolt of the clouds. We shall have to plead guilty to the charge that we are regardless of human life.—It would seem as if we weigh a few pounds of iron wrought into a rod against our own existence; but this is too unnatural and uncharitable,

and we are driven to set down the default to negligence and carelessness, enlpable, though, even they be.

The ordinary mode of applying the metallic rod is to attach it to the chimney only, it being the most prominent and most in need of protection, but it is a great improvement to extend it along the ridge pole the whole length of the building, running up other chimneys if there be any, and at distances of ten or twelve feet along the roof attached to the main rod short ones of two, three, and four feet should be erected in a vertical direction to determine the fluid to them. All the rods should have their upper termination in points covered by silver or some metal not oxydized by the atmosphere, and the foot should penetrate the earth until it reach a depth of permanent moisture. It is usual to confine the rod to the building by iron, but it is better to use as a fastening some bad conductor, such as dry wood, or cut off the communication with glass or horn.

Particular care should be taken that the connection of different parts of the rod be complete, and there be no obstruction to the free passage of the fluid to the earth. This being the case, the rod forms a free communication between the clouds and the ground, the equilibrium of the fluid which has been disturbed is restored, and the passage of electricity is silent and safe to every thing within a circle whose diameter is four times the height of the rod.

Should a thunder storm overtake us away from the house, and we have iron implements of husbandry in hand, it is prudent to throw them aside, and by no means take shelter under a tree, particularly when it stands in an open plain. If the tree be struck, and a person be leaning against or standing near the body. he being a better conducter than the tree, the fluid will take him in its circuit. It is better to get a drenching in the rain than run this hazard of loss of life.

### Anniversary of the Pendleton Farmers' Society.

The second Thursday in October next, the Pendleton Farmers' Society will hold its anniversary meeting. On Friday, the exhibition of stock, agricultural products and implements, articles of domestic manufacture, &c., will take place. Premiums will be awarded as seen on the last page of this number. More of the particulars in our next.

### The Weather.

The weather is extremely warm and the crops are suffering with the drought. Cotton is dropping its forms and bolls.—There cannot be a full crop of corn.—The prospect of turnips is bad. The seed from want of rain has not come up. We have had about sixty consecutive days of warm weather, the thermometer ranging almost the whole time from 80 to 90°. This deserves to be called the hot summer.

**Market and Luggage Wagons.**

In market and luggage wagons the use of springs is much less common than would be the case, if the true principles of economy were to prevail. On horizontal planes where there are no stones or other obstacles in the way of the wheels, it is not a matter of so much importance, since the load moving along in a line parallel to the plane of the road, offers no resistance to progressive motion only as it increases the friction. But where the road is rough and stones are to be overcome, a given weight is drawn with less force, and the wear and tear of the wagon is materially diminished. Without springs whenever the wheel strikes an obstacle it must be lifted over and with it the whole load; with springs by their elasticity the load is not materially disturbed, and thus is saved a very considerable expenditure of force.

The articles of loading are transported much safer, and jolting, which wears the wagon more than any thing else, is avoided. Large wheels have an advantage over small ones, if not so large as to be heavy. Each spoke acts as a lever, and within moderate limits the longer the spoke the greater the mechanical advantage. In mud, sand and over stones the gain is important.

The angle at which horses should be attached to a vehicle is about 14°, varying with the road travelled; on a smooth plain, it should be less, and on a rough road, more. Horses work to better advantage a-breast than tandem. since in the latter mode the horse drawing in a line parallel to the plain, must expend a part of his force upon the back of the horse in the shafts, instead of the load.—Eds.

## Original Communications.

### "The Policy of Burning Woods."

Messrs. Editors.—In a back No. of your paper, "Pry" has given us a long article in favor of the above policy. It is matter of regret to us, that we cannot subscribe to his opinions. But one who writes so earnestly and readily, must believe what he writes, and will be apt to make converts—hence the more important it becomes to say something on the other side by way of antidote.

On the first position, that it "improves the productive powers of the land," we take issue, and after reading carefully Pry's article, think he has failed to prove his point most signally. To cite the practice of the aborigines upon this subject, is certainly, resorting to very strange authority on agricultural subjects. The Indians were always careful to select for their settlements, lands which would yield the greatest amount for the least labor—and we never saw an old Indian settlement that was not worn out. But to argue that the "astonishing yield of the Western lands" proves the fact, is certainly strange. Has the Geological formation of the country nothing to do with it? Could the immense quantity of lime, found in the western soils, have come from burning the woods? Could the rich alluvial soils of the West have been produced by it? If so, the mountain lands of the State should be the most fertile. If burning the woods be all that is necessary to improve the soil, there is no longer any excuse for having poor land in many parts of the country.

Again, "Pry" argues that the exclusion of the sun by the dense thickets and undergrowth, where woods are not fired, is injurious to the soil. Now, we have long labored under the impression, that the surest and most rapid way to enriching land, was to exclude the sun, as much as possible, and that rank luxuriance of vegetation was always an evidence of fertility. Now let "Pry" answer us this question—Would not the undergrowth of an unmolested forest extract from the subsoil as much potash, soda, lime, magnesia, &c., as his "carpet of luxuriant grass, flowers, and annual plants?" Secondly, would not a greater quantity of organic, and inorganic matter be returned to the soil, by the slow decomposition of leaves, twiggs, &c., in these dense forests where the "gloom of perpetual twilight" reigns, than by burning them off annually?—Thirdly, would not the rains injure the soil more by washing when annually fired, and would not the ash of the plants burned, be generally washed away? Boussingault's experiments prove almost conclusively that plants during their growth derive two-thirds of their carbon from the air.

Prof. Johnson says—"When woody fibre is burned in the air, oxygen disappears and carbonic acid and watery vapor are alone produced—that the nitrogen and ammonia also escape in an uncombined state and mingle with the air—while in the natural process of decay vegetable matter is exposed to the action of both *air* and *water*, which both co-operate in inducing decomposition, and hence carbonic acid is not in the case of combustion the chief or immediate result."

Professor Johnson lays down the following axioms:

1st. That all vegetable productions consist of

two parts—one, the organic part, which is capable of being burned away in the air, the other, the inorganic part which remains behind in the form of ash.

2nd. That this organic part consists of carbon, hydrogen, oxygen and nitrogen only.

3d. That plants derive the greater part of their carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen from *water* and of their nitrogen from ammonia and nitric acid.

4th. That by far the largest portion of those substances which form the principal mass of plants, such as starch and woody fibre consists of of carbon united to oxygen and hydrogen in the proportions which they exist in water.

5th. That the food on which they live, enters by the roots and leaves of plants, &c.

6th. That the supply of carbonic acid is kept up partly by the respiration of animals, partly by the natural decay of dead vegetable matter, and partly by combustion. That ammonia is supplied to plants chiefly by the natural decay of animal and vegetable substances, and nitric acid, partly by the natural oxidation of dead organic matter, and partly by the direct union of oxygen and nitrogen, through the agency of atmospheric electricity.

7th. That while both of these compounds yield nitrogen to these plants, they each exhibit a special action on vegetable life in virtue of the hydrogen and oxygen they contain, and exercise also a so-called stimulating power, by which plants are induced or enabled to appropriate to themselves, from other natural sources, a larger portion of all their constituent elements than they could otherwise assimilate."

Again, Pry thinks that the main advantage springs from the "introduction of a crop of annual instead of perennial plants—of plants developed and perfected in a single season, and as readily *decomposed* and *returned to the earth* to be reapplied to new creation." Granted—but are not all the advantages obtained lost by the burning—by the conversion of all into carbonic acid simply? But to our mind the more rapidly a plant makes itself out of the soil, the more readily it must exhaust the soil. And the "shrubs, bushes and perennials which grow and flourish for ages, on the same spot, Pry must remember extract three-fourths of their carbon from the air; by their deep roots are constantly drawing up new supplies of salts from the subsoil, and dropping vegetable matter to aid in the composition of nitrogen, ammonia and carburetted hydrogen, as well as carbonic acid. Again, in relation to the improvement of the health of the country, Pry may be right, but much depends upon locality. Certainly shrubs and bushes are better barriers against the poisonous malaria, than grass and flower carpets, and if these "grasses, flowers and annuals characterized by such luxuriancy" do decay before the firing season—what is to prevent the air from being poisoned by *their* decomposition? We are surprised to find the policy of burning woods advocated at this day, and particularly so, in a region somewhat notorious for good farmers and close observers.

BROOMSEDGE.

### A Large Yield.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—I send you a statement of the production of a small farm in Ash County, N. C., owned by Mr. Euclid Baird, as stated by him. Mr. Baird is a gentleman of respectability—his father has been for many years Senator to the Legislature from Ash County. The following is his statement, viz:—40 bushels of Corn per acre—1.500 bushels of Oats—100 bushels of Rye and Wheat—500 bushels Irish potatoes—500 bushels Turnips—36 stacks of Fodder—100 wagon loads of Pumpkins—36 Hay stacks—1,200 gallons Brandy—7 stacks Clover—Cabbage sufficient to winter 15 head of cattle—number of hands worked, 5; three of them small boys. Every State in the Union is far ahead of us in agriculture—even North Carolina.

A SUBSCRIBER.

*Silverton, S. C., August* 22, 1850.

—

We like to have facts like the above forwarded to us, and if accompanied with the mode of culture so much the better.

EDS.

### Help One Another.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—I am pleased to witness in the former numbers of your excellent paper, an evidence of the zealous and most commendable interest you take in the advancement and prosperity of Southern Agriculture. Others of your readers, not personally acquainted with you, must, I am sure, be satisfied on the subject. Why is it, therefore, Messrs. Editors, that so few of us, who are as much interested in "getting the wagon up the hill" as yourselves, have come to your assistance? You have put your shoulder to the wheel—*we* look on, "wish you mighty well," and, like the man in the fable, do nothing. And what makes the matter still worse, I am informed that the paper will not clear expenses for the first year, with its present number of subscribers—that you are actually receiving nothing for your labors thus bestowed for the advancement of our interests.

Brethren, Farmers and Planters of the South, is this generous? is it right? is it characteristic of the people of the South to suffer their brethren to labor for them with freedom, fervency and zeal without wages—without relief? I think not, nay I know you will all agree with me that *it is not.* Then let me invite you to come to the rescue. Let us put *our* shoulder to the wheel—make a strong push, a long push, and a push altogether. Let every man contribute his mite, for every one may, if so disposed, do something in the good cause. Many of you who have never attempted such a thing, may write something for the paper that will add to its value, and usefulness. All that you have to do is to make the attempt. You can tell what you know, in plain, farmer-like language, and, if you think it is not fine enough, ask the editors, and I will vouch for their dressing it up before it appears before the public. Those who cannot, or will not write, may do much valuable service, in procuring new subscribers. There is not a man who now takes the Farmer and Planter, who could not influence one or more of his neighbors to subscribe for it. Nothing is wanting but an effort, for I doubt not, brethren, you all have the will. The paper has already some valuable contributors, but it must have more. "A free horse must not be ridden to death," therefore, we must not exact too much from those who are willing to work, whether they be contributors or editors. GREENVILLE.

*August* 15, 1850.

### Endorsement of the Views Expressed in No. 6, Upon Legislative Aid to Agriculture.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—If it is not out of rule, and I believe it is not, I will occupy, with your consent, a small corner in the Farmer and Planter as a reviewer of one or two communications; not, however, for the sake of fault-finding, but of approving. I am delighted with the waters of "Big Branch." I know nothing of the fountain or source from which they flow, but I like the color, and they have just enough of the saline in them to give them pungency, and make them palatable.

Upon the dignity of the vocation of the tiller of the soil, Broomsedge writes very much to my satisfaction. It is full time that we throw off our robe of indolence, and assume our true and righteous position among the ranks of spirited men.—We have been long enough uninformed of what is our interest. We have suffered ourselves to be made the pack-horses of society, when we might and ought to have been the noblemen of the land.—We have, in fact, as stated by B., made the noblest calling of earth a dull, uninteresting drudgery.

We refuse to let the light of science coupled with experience shine upon us, and draw ourselves back from it as the turtle within its shell. I have, however, digressed from my original purpose, which *was simply to endorse "in full,"* the

article in the last number of your journal, under the head of "Legislative aid to Agriculture." I was glad to see it, and hope to read more of the same sort. It is a true bill of indictment drawn after my own heart. I, and my neighbors with me, approve of every count in the declaration of complaint. At some future time, with your leave, I will give my views more in detail.

The resources of the State must be opened, and legislative aid must be given to accomplish this purpose. It is for the interest of all, but the planter must be foremost, and Captain of the exploration. We have a flourishing and magnificent literary institution, two military academies, and it has been proposed to establish a third; but what institution have we to educate the husbandman in what is essential to his being an intelligent tiller of the soil? The voice of the planter must be raised to a pitch that will force a recognition of his rights. Listlessness has too long rested upon us, and we have too long yielded submission to the councils of those who cannot, or will not, see things other than darkly and dimly. MICA.

*Edgefield, Aug.* 22, 1850.

### Mules and Horses.

GENTLEMEN:—The summer is nearly at a close, and droves of horses and mules will soon be among us from Tennessee and Kentucky, for sale. A very large amount of money is taken out of this State every year for these animals. It is the opinion of many that planters ought to diminish this constant drain on their purses by raising stock at home. In the upper counties of the State, which are not so well adapted to the growth of cotton, and better for grazing purposes I do not doubt this is the correct course to pursue, but in a larger portion of the State, if I may judge from my experience, it costs us more to raise the animals than to purchase them; in other words, that we can make cotton at the average price and pay for them at a less cost than we can raise them on our plantations. It is not, however, my object in this communication, to enquire whether we ought to purchase or raise our stock, but which is best suited to our uses, the horse or the mule.—On this point there is a difference of opinion, but it seems to me, that it can be conclusively shown, that the most economical force that we can employ on the farm, all things considered, is that of the mule. The ox is, for some purposes, very good, and no plantation should be without one pair at least; but for plowing and plantation uses generally, the question must be between the mule and the horse. Among the advantages of the mule, is the length of life. The horse at eight or nine years is considered at his best, and at twelve or thirteen, is to be regarded as nearly done service. But the mule continues to improve until nearly twenty—does good service frequently until twenfive or thirty, and has been known to live as old as sixty. Thus, his age and time of service are more than double, if not treble that of the horse. The mule is less liable to disease, and more to be relied on in drawing our cotton and other produce to market. Horses, unless specially cared for, frequently lie down and die, but it is so seldom the case with the mule, that it is quite grown into a proverb that "no one ever saw a dead mule." I have never had, in spite of bad treatment from negroes, a bellowsed mule, or one diseased of the poll-evil, big-head, swinny, or spavin. When I used nothing but horses, with the greatest care I could give them, there was always something the matter with some of them. In our hot climate and with our treatment, the eyes of the horse so often become affected, 'tis no uncommon thing to see several blind horses on a plantation; but a blind mule is a rare sight. The hearing and vision of the mule, are naturally better than those of the horse; the mule is, therefore, less easily frightened and consequently safer. He is much hardier, and will bear the most oppressive heat of summer, side-by-side with the horse, and close the crop in good condition, when the horse is jaded and worn almost entirely out. For the saddle, he is not suited, though occasionally we meet with one that paces well; he is then highly prized, because surer footed than the horse. For the carriage, choice mules are very valuable. There is now in my neighborhood a splendid match of Kentucky horses, bought at a high price, fine travellers, and equal in all respects to the best horses brought to this market.—They are kept exclusively for the carriage. I have a pair of mules, for which I gave $150, considerably less than half the cost of the horses, and can invariably out-travel my neighbor, either for an hour, a day, or a month. If for sale, they would command a higher price than the horses. I can plow the mules three days in the week and perform the same carriage services as the horses, and keep them in equal condition. Their capability to endure hardship is almost incredible. The horse, to perform good service, must be well groomed and well fed. The mule, if he is curried and rubbed, 'tis of advantage; but if not 'tis very well. He very seldom gets it. He will fatten upon an amount of food upon which the horse would actually starve. In duration of life, in exemption from disease, in less liability to accident, in powers of endurance, in cheapness of keeping, he is greatly preferable to the horse, and I believe by far the best brute force, that we can employ on our plantations. PLANTER.

*Putnam Co., Ga., August* 18, 1850.

### Essays on various Subjects of Practical Farming.

BY EDMUND RUFFIN, OF VA.

#### 1.—DRAINAGE OF SURFACE-WATER.

*(Continued.)*

*Rain Water.*—When rains are not much more frequent or more abundant than in this region, and the sky is as sunny and the air is as drying as here, much the greater proportion of land will require no drainage. Even if the soil is stiff, and but slightly pervious to water, and permitting little if any of the excess of water to pass through by filtration, yet if the surface is hilly or even moderately undulating, the excess of water will soon flow off to the streams, along the channels offered by the natural and deepest depressions.—In hilly lands, the depressions generally decline slightly throughout their whole courses, until reaching some still lower place of discharge in a permanent stream. In such ordinary situations, the temporary rain-streams, whether in gentle rills, or torrents, while pouring down the inclined depressions, will not often need a ditch for their more speedy passage. If the washing and guttering of the soil is prevented by proper care, the excess of water will do but little other damage to the land, or its growth. Such rain-streams seldom continue to flow for more than a few hours at most.

So much as to hilly or undulating land. If a field is so level that but little water can flow off, still, if the soil, and the lower earth to the depth of some feet, are of open texture, (as sandy loam, sand or gravel,) and easily pervious to water, the excess of rain-water rapidly sinks, and passes off by filtration. This is *natural drainage*—and the most perfect of all. No care or labor of the farmer can improve this operation of Nature; nor equal it, on any other land requiring artificial drainage.

Lands having both a rolling or hilly surface and a porous soil and inferior bed of earth, are thus doubly secured from damage by any excess of rain-water, falling directly from the clouds. Indeed lands of such porous soil and sub-soil, and with sufficient elevation above the "*water-table*" below, (or the height of subterraneous water, from whatever source supplied,) are in but little danger from excess by water,

from any source; as such excess of water must disappear by filtration before it can ooze over much, if any, of the surface.—But level lands of sandy soil and sub-soil, are peculiarly exposed to damage from under-water, when the height of the "water-table" approaches within two or even three feet of the surface of the land. And this is frequently the case in low grounds, where no water is ever seen at the surface, (and perhaps cannot be shown by a ditch of moderate or ordinary depth,) and the farmer either does not suspect that the land is suffering from concealed water, or, if suspecting it, does not deem the evil of enough magnitude to be worth the cost of removing; and also very generally does not know how to apply a remedy, if deeming it necessary. When confined and stagnant water can always be reached in quantity by digging two or three feet deep, the earth above must be always absorbing water, and drawing it up, by capillary attraction to the surface. Every one knows that if a common flower-pot of large size, with a hole in its bottom, and standing in its shallow dish, is filled with dry earth, and water is poured into the dish as frequently as absorbed, that the earth will become wet to its surface. This cause of injury by water to land is of very common occurrence; and the operation is more injurious to sandy than to nearly impervious clay soils or sub-soils. The remedial treatment for this evil is found in covered draining, and belongs to another division of this essay.

The only kinds of land requiring draining of surface-water furnished directly by rain, are such as are so nearly level as not to permit the excess to flow off speedily, and also being of soil or sub-soil too impervious to permit the sufficiently free passage of water by filtration.

In such cases, in a cool, cloudy and often dripping climate, like that of Ireland, Scotland, and a part of England, surface-draining by open ditches and furrows, with all the aid of the slow evaporation, will not suffice to dry land soon enough. Hence the necessity there existing for the "thorough draining" or "frequent drain" system. A field of close clay soil and sub-soil, even if of undulating or sloping surface, and not subject to any excess of spring or under water, may yet require parallel covered drains to be sunk beneath every bed (say of 12, 15, or at most 18 feet width,) intervening with the open water-furrows between the beds. Into these covered drains, the excess of surface-water sinks by the means for filtration thus artificially afforded; and the surface is drained (though less perfectly,) in the same manner as occurs in a naturally permeable soil and sub-soil. It should be borne in mind that this is the object and operation of nearly all the "hollow," or "covered," or "thorough" or "frequent" under-draining referred to by European writers on this subject. In our more sunny and drying climate, there are but few situations in which this expensive mode of operating would be required for sufficient drainage of the land; and almost none, in lower Virginia, where the greater expenses would be compensated by the superior returns of this process. On the much higher priced lands of the northern states, the case may be and probably is different.

*Surface-draining by Water-furrows, Grips, and Rain-ditches.*—Land suffers from surface-water, and needs proper drainage for relief, when it combines a surface too level to permit the speedy flowing off of the excess of rain falling thereon, with a soil too impervious, or if pervious, too shallow, to permit the excess of water to sink, and so escape below by filtration. The extent of remedial measures required will vary according to the extent of the evils to be removed. If the soil, though of very close texture, be slightly pervious to percolating water, (and very few of the stiffest clays are not so,) or if there be a very slight inclination of the surface in one direction; then the mere ploughing the land into ridges, with the intervening deep and clean water-furrows, which ordinary good plowing will afford, will suffice for good drainage. In such cases, it will be only requisite that the water-furrows shall have something of the descent which the slope of the field affords; and that on the lower side of the field, a *rain-ditch* shall be cut, to receive and discharge the water which every water-furrow will bring down after too abundant rains. If, instead of the rare case of the nearly level land having but one general inclination of its surface, there are slopes in several different directions, then a different procedure is required. If, as usual in such cases, there is a long depression stretching across the field, to which the adjacent ground slopes, and if the depression be not too crooked for the direction of good ploughing, it will be best to make a deep water-furrow with the plow (or *grip-furrow*) along the bottom of the depression. Then the ridges and intervening water-furrows should be ploughed parallel to the first deep and more or less crooked or meandering water-furrows. If all the water-furrows shall not have a slope from one end to the other, (which would be a rare case,) and the impervious texture of the soil shall then require it, *cross-grips*, or small ditches about 12 inches wide and a little deeper than the water furrow, must be cut across the beds at every small depression which would otherwise retain puddles of rain water. These cross-grips will receive the surplus water from every water-furrow crossed by them, and convey it into the deeper and lower-lying grip-furrow, which will discharge the water at its lower end. A grip when in a water-furrow, is made by merely ploughing the water-furrow deeper than the others, with a few extra runnings of the plow and throwing out the loose earth with a shovel. A grip across the beds, is also cut by running the plough 3 or 4 times in the same track, and then deepening and cleaning it out with the spade and shovel. These are the smallest and simplest open drains, next to the water-furrows made by the plough in throwing land into ordinary ridges or beds. The grip-furrows are ploughed along, and the cross-grips are partly filled up by the crossing of the ploughs or harrows, at every tillage of the land. But they are very easily cleaned out again, by broad hoes or shovels. The open drains furnished by ordinary water-furrows cost nothing; as the best and cheapest mode of ploughing and tilling level land is in the form of ridges or beds, and water-furrows. The grips cost not much labor; and from their small size they cause no obstruction to the crossing of teams drawing ploughs or carts.

There are several different advantages in running the ploughing and the beds parallel with the long depressions. The beds are usually of more uniform soil, and of more uniform level throughout their lengths, than they could be if made straight, and crossing these depressions. Thus, the ploughing may be kept, as most desirable in any particular condition of the land as to moisture, by either running on the highest or the lowest ground, the lightest or the stiffest, the driest or the most moist—instead of passing through ground in all these different conditions, in every furrow running straight across the field.

But in cases where straight beds would not be attended with these disadvantages—or if preferred for any cause—grips would have to be run along the bottom of every depression, crossing the beds, and all which grips must discharge at their lower ends into a ditch sunk in the lowest ground, either under or just along the outside of the field. The same ditch would be required whatever might be the plan of the beds. And if receiving no other and more constant supply of water, this rain ditch, as well as the grips, would convey no water except the surplus from rains, and would at most times be not only empty, but dry.

Should the quantity of water in excess be very abundant on any body of such land—whether from the wide extent of surface receiving and collecting the water of rains, or because the supply of water is increased by additions flowing from neighboring higher grounds—then it will be required that the rain-ditches shall be wider and deeper, and perhaps may generally or always contain some water.—Such variations, depending upon the difference of circumstances, will have to be provided for according to the obvious requirement of the circumstances of each case. But though all such rain-ditches should be as deep and as wide as necessary to discharge quickly enough the usual supply of surplus water, it is important that they shall not be larger, and especially not deeper, than required for their proper operation and object.—Any depth greater than that from which the water can be discharged, adds nothing to the draining effects; and the bottom of the ditch, so made unnecessarily deep, is kept, through the dryest weather, a permanent pool of stagnant water, or an impassable quagmire.

*Permanent Streams, and Stream-Ditches.*—Another subject for surface-draining, and by open ditches, is the sinking to a sufficient depth below the level of the soil, and conveying away to some lower place of discharge, small but constant streams, coming from without the boundry

of the field, if not the farm. These *stream-ditches* should be made generally along the lower depressions, and also by the shortest proper route, leading to the lowest available place of discharge—whether in a larger and principal stream-ditch, or a river. Stream-ditches serve not only the purpose stated above, of lowering the level of the water, and conveying away permanent streams, but they also serve as places of discharge for all the neighboring rain-ditches, of the covered drains carrying off under-water from springs, and also the surplus rain-water from every adjacent surface and source; which supplies sometimes greatly exceed in volume the capacity of the ditches, and for short times overflow the low land alongside. The size of every stream-ditch should be sufficiently large to prevent these occasional and unavoidable overflowings remaining long upon the land. There transient occurrence cannot be altogether prevented; unless by incurring more cost than the value of the increase of benefit thereby to be obtained. And no matter how small the volume of constant water conveyed by a stream-ditch, its ordinary height should not be less than 24 inches, (and still better if 36 or more,) below the level of the bordering low ground. Unless the elevation of the ground and the fall of the stream permit stream-ditches to be sunk and kept deep enough to so lower the level of the water, the absorption of the land, by capillary attraction, will bring too much moisture to the surface, and injure the condition of the soil and the amount of products.

The stream-ditches which on almost all farms serve (well or ill) for some or all the the purposes here mentioned, together with the *main ditch*, (the receptacle and discharger of all the surplus water from every source—) are the great arteries of every extensive system of drainage—the far most important part—on the good condition and operation of which the success of all the other aids to drainage will depend. Yet because of the universal necessity for and use of stream-ditches, less is required to be said of them than of other less important but less known aids to draining. My remarks upon stream-ditches will mostly have reference to the usual and most important errors of their location, construction, or after-use and preservation.

The lands requiring surface-draining on account of streams, and by means of open ditches, may be divided into the three following general classes.

1. The bottoms of valleys (usually narrow) lying between high and hilly bordering lands—the bottom-land and the streams having abundant "fall" in their courses.

2. Swamps, or very level and low-lying bottoms, having little fall; and saturated and often covered by the water of sluggish and obstructed streams.

3. The broad flat lands bordering on, and elevated much above rivers of considerable or large size, and of which small portions only are affected materially by the neighborhood of either the river or the high table or hilly lands.

Marshes, subject to be covered by tide-waters, or other lands requiring to be secured from the ordinary height of the water by embankments, would offer another and very large class of wet lands, of which the discussion will be here omitted. The three other classes of lands above named, so far as their drainage from surface-water is concerned, will be next considered separately and in order. So much of their drainage as is required by the access of springs, or under-water, (and mostly by means of covered drains,) will be post poned to a later part of this essay, when under-water and covered-draining shall come under consideration.

(*To be continued.*)

### On the Use of Mules.

Mules, on a general average, live more than twice as long as horses. They are fit for service from three years old to thirty. At twelve a horse has seen his best days and is going down-hill, but a mule at that age has scarcely risen out of his childhood, and goes on improving until he is twenty. Instances are recorded of mules living sixty or seventy years, but these are exceptions. The general rule is that they will average thirty.

Mules are never exposed to diseases as horses are. I have spent considerable time in studying the diseases of horses, from ring-bone up to poll-evil; but who ever heard of a ring-boned, spavined, wind-broken mule? Immense sums of money are annually lost in the premature death of high-spirited horses by accident and disease. The omnibus lines in the city of New York have not been able to sustain their horses, and are begining to use mules, as less liable by far even to accident as well as disease.—[We have not seen any.—*Ed. Spt. Times.*]

This results from the next consideration, which is, that mules have organs of vision and hearing far superior to those of the horse, hence they seldom shear, frighten or run off. A horse frightens because he imagines he sees something frightful, but a mule, having superior discernment, both by the eye and ear, understands every thing he meets, and is therefore safe. For the same reason he is surer-footed, and hence more valuable in mountain regions and on dangerous roads. I doubt whether on the Alpine paths a mule ever made a misstep. He may have been deceived in the firmness of the spot where he sets his foot but not in the propriety of the choice, all appearances considered.

The mule is much more hardy than the horse. A pair of these animals owned by a neighbor of mine, although small in size, will plough more land in a week than four horses. In light harness or under the saddle, in hauling iron ore or on the turnpike before a Conestoga wagon, one mule in a life-time will kill seven horses. Their faculty of endurance is almost incredible.

Another very important fact is, that in the matter of food a mule will live and thrive on less than one-half what it takes to keep a horse. The horses of England at the present time are consuming grain which might be more profitably disposed of. In our country, however, the saving of grain is no object. In a national point of view, the agricultural interest is so great that the greater demand for grain of all kinds the better for the farmer; but yet individual farmers who are in debt, and whose land is not improved, would find it profitable, in the course of ten years, to have the labor of a full team, and save one-half of the food necessary to keep it up, as might be the case in substituting mules for horses.

[*Pittsburgh Saturday Visitor.*

## Housewife's Department.

### Caution to Ladies.

The annexed *nine* cautions to young ladies are almost as important as the *ten* commandments laid down in the good book. We quote them for the benefit of our young and unsophisticated maiden readers, who may not yet have 'told' their love; and who will we trust, pay due attention to the sound advise here given, ere they tie the 'silken cord,' for better or for worse

1. Never marry for wealth, never make money an object of marriage. 'Wilt thou set thine eyes upon that which is not?' A man's life consisteth not in the things which he possesseth.

2. Never marry a fop, or one who struts about dandy-like in his silk gloves and ruffles, with silvered cane, and rings on his fingers. Beware! there is a trap!

3. Never marry a niggard, a closefisted, mean, sordid wretch, who saves every penny, or spends grudgingly. Take care, lest he stint you to death. Beware of the trap.

4. Never marry a stranger, or one whose character is not known or tested. Some females jump right into the fire with their eyes open.

5. Never marry a mope or a drone, one who drawls and draggles through life, one foot after another, and lets things take their course; 'drowsiness shall clothe a man in rags.'

6. Never marry a man who treats his mother or sister unkindly or indifferently; such treatment is an indication of a mean and wicked heart. And a young man guilty of such meanness, will never make a good husband. Beware! ladies. Do you see a young man that's attentive, affectionate to his aged mother and sisters, attentive to all their wants with filial love and tenderness, virtuous, pure, and lovely in his deportment, fear not, his worth is above rubies.

7. Never, on any account, marry a gambler, a spend-thrift, a sabbath-breaker, a profane person, one who in the least speaks lightly or carelessly of God, and holy things. Such a man, whatever qualifications he may possess, can never make a true husband. Beware.

8. Never marry a sloven, a man who is negligent of his person and dress, and of filthy habits. The external appearances often indicates the state of mind and heart. with the pure all things are pure.

9. Shun the rake as a snake, a viper, a demon.

Messrs. Editors:—I desire to make some enquiries through your paper, which may probably be answered by some of your exchanges:—First, where, and at what price can a one or two year old, full-blooded, Ayrshire Bull be obtained?—Secondly, where can the pure, white Turkey, heretofore raised about Baltimore, be had? and of whom can the pure, black (Poland) fowls, with a white top-knot, be procured? and at what price can a pair of each of the latter be set down at Augusta, (Ga.)? J. O. Lewis.

*Pendleton, Aug.* 21, 1850.

Independent Woman.—Talk, indeed, of your pantomine and gaudy shows; your processions, and installations, and coronation! give me a beautiful sight, a neat and smart woman, heating her own oven, and setting her own bread! And if the bustle does make the sign of labor glisten on her brow, what man would not kiss that off, rather than lick the plaster from the cheek of a duchess.

Employment is neeessary to man: if agreeable, it is a pleasure; if useful, a happiness.

### CONTENTS OF THIS NUMBER.





### PREMIUMS FOR 1850.

The Pendleton Farmers' Society offer the following Premiums for the year, 1850 viz:

1st. For the best conducted experiment on sub-soil plowing, not less than one acre, to be contrasted with the same quantity and on land of the same quality not sub-soiled, except on up-land, and without manure to be planted in corn—Five Dollars.

2nd. The same, the land to be grown in wheat—Five Dollars.

3rd. The largest product of picked Cotton from one acre, whether manured or not, the mode of culture, quality of Seed, time of planting, &c. to be reported by the applicant—A Medal, to cost $5.

4th. The best acre of Clover, to be sown after September of the present year—Two Dollars.

5th. The best quarter acre of any of the cultivated Grasses—Two Dollars.

6th. The cheapest hundred weight of pork, the manner of feeding to be reported to the society—Three Dollars.

7th. Best stallion for farm use, not over four years, and raised in the district—four Dollars.

8th. Best Mare—Four Dollars.
9th. Best Jack—Three "
10th. Best Jennet—three "
11th. Best Bull—Two "
12th. Best Cow—Two "
13th and 14th, Best Ram and Ewe, improved breed—Two Dollars.

AGRICULTURAL IMPLEMENTS.

Price and efficiency to be taken into consideration.

15th. Best Sub-soil Plow—One Dollar.

16th. Best Turning Plow—One Dollar, to be tested by a public Plowing match.

MISCELLANEOUS.

17th. Best specimen of Butter, not less than 5 lbs.—One Dollar.

18th. Best specimen of Cheese, not less than 5 lbs.—One Dollar.

19. Best piece Homespun, Wool and Cotton, ten yards—One Dollar and Fifty Cents.

20. Best piece of Homespun, Silk and Wool, ten yards—Two Dollars.

21st. Best piece Homespun, Ladies dress, seven yards—One Dollar.

22nd. Second best piece Homespun, Ladies dress, seven yards—Fifty Cents.

23rd. Best Domestic Flannel, half wool, ten yards—Two Dollars.

24th. Best Negro Blanket—One Dollar.

25th. Best pair Half Hose, all Wool—Twenty-five Cents.

26th. Best pair Half Hose, all Cotton—Twenty-five Cents.

27th. Best pair Half Hose, all Silk—Twenty-five Cents.

By Order of the Society.

J. B. BENSON, Sec'y.

### TO POSTMASTERS.

There are thousands to whom the subject needs only to be suggested, who would subscribe to a paper devoted to Southern Agriculture at the low price of one dollar a year. Your public position as well as other causes make you, persons, frequently conferred with upon the merits of newspapers and public journals. Situated as you are at central points in every part of the country, you have opportunities to exercise very great influence for the general good. The Post office department at Washington, looking to public convenience, has by its decisions encouraged your kind offices to the Press. We therefore, respectfully, solicit that you act as agents in your neighborhood to procure subscribers for the "Farmer and Planter." We would willingly allow commissions, for money collected from subscribers obtained in this way, if we had any idea they would be acceptable.

SEABORN & GILMAN.